

Contemporary Psychology

A JOURNAL OF REVIEWS

Page 385

Speech and Brain-Mechanisms, by Wilder Penfield and Lamar Roberts

Reviewed by O. L. ZANGWILL

387

The Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook, by O. K. Buros (Ed.)

Reviewed by C. R. LANGMUIR

390

Adolescent Aggression: A Study of the Influence of Child-Training Practices and Family Interrelationships, by Albert Bandura and R. H. Walters

Reviewed by E. B. McNEU

392

Neuro-Psychopharmacology, by P. B. Bradley, P. Deniker, and C. Radouco-Thomas (Eds.)

Reviewed by C. C. PREIFFER

393

Quantitative Methods in Psychology, by Don Lewis

Reviewed by R. R. BUSH

394

CP SPEAKS

By the Editors

395

My Name is Legion: Foundations for a Theory of Man in Relation to Culture, by A. H. Leighton

Reviewed by J. G. MILLER

399

Name Index

405

Subject Index

(Continued on inside cover)

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Maverick Brain Functions

Wilder Penfield and Lamar Roberts

Speech and Brain-Mechanisms. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press, 1959. Pp. xiv + 286. \$6.00.

Reviewed by O. L. ZANGWILL

Professor Zangwill is Professor of Experimental Psychology at the University of Cambridge, England, and Director of the Cambridge Psychological Laboratory, being successor to Sir Frederic Bartlett whose pupil he once was. He is Visiting Psychologist to the National Hospital for Nervous Diseases in Queen Square, London and sometime Research Psychologist in the Brain Injuries Unit of Edinburgh. He edits the Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology and is a member of the Editorial Panel of Brain.

THE advance of neurosurgery has brought about important gains in the study of human brain functions. Until quite recently, research in this field proceeded largely by what was called the "clinico-pathological method," i.e., the attempt to correlate the signs and symptoms of brain disease with the nature and locus of pathological change as established at necropsy. The advent of neurosurgery has however made clear that the effects of disease of a localized area of the brain are often very much more severe than those of its surgical excision. Further, operations on the brain have made possible the use of techniques of stimulation previously limited to the field of animal experiment. In view of these considerations, it might

now seem difficult to reject—as did Lashley—the evidence of clinical neurology as too vague and uncontrolled to merit serious scientific attention.

Neurosurgeons in recent years have become increasingly aware of the opportunities for scientific research afforded by their material—and none more so than the senior author of the present book. Here Professor Penfield and his accomplished collaborator, Dr. Lamar Roberts, have brought together the results of a long series of brain operations which have relevance to the cerebral organization of speech. In the great majority of cases, operation was undertaken for the relief of focal seizures and was conducted under local anesthesia; in a considerable number, the speech cortex was explored and mapped by electrical stimulation at the time of operation. Although the findings (with the exception of those concerned with handedness and laterality of excision) have not been subjected to statistical analysis, the outcome may properly be regarded as a major contribution to the study of aphasia.

THE more important results of the inquiry may be briefly summarized:

(1) *Cerebral Dominance.* The findings obtained both from excision (pp.

92-94) and stimulation (pp. 127-131) support the traditional view that speech is represented unilaterally in the cerebral cortex. This is also indicated by the Wada technique of sodium amytal injection (pp. 86f.), though the findings here are somewhat equivocal (p. 98). At the same time, the results do not support the hypothesis of an intrinsic connection between handedness and the cerebral organization of speech. Although 33 left-handed (or predominantly left-handed) patients were included in this inquiry, there was no case of persistent aphasia following operation on the right hemisphere alone. Further, if cases in which brain injury was sustained before the age of 2 years are excluded, no significant difference was found in the incidence of aphasia after operation on the right hemisphere as between left-handed and right-handed subjects (p. 102). The authors are therefore led to conclude that the left hemisphere was dominant in virtually all their patients, irrespective of handedness.

(2) *Delimitation of 'Speech Areas.'* In general, excision and cortical mapping respectively gave concordant evidence as regards the locus and limits of the 'speech areas.' This is clearly seen from inspection of Figs. VIII-14 (p. 135) and IX-23 (p. 189). The areas in question may be described as parieto-temporal, inferior frontal and supplementary motor, and of these the first two correspond closely with the classical zones of Wernicke and Broca, respectively. The evidence from excision (though not from stimulation) suggests that the parieto-temporal area is the most important of the three. As regards function, the authors hold strongly



—André Larose, Montreal
WILDER PENFIELD

that removal of brain cortex *as such* is not responsible for defect of speech, transitory or persistent. In the first place, areas similar in location and extent to those removed in patients who were dysphasic immediately after operation have been removed in other patients without causing immediate difficulty in speech (p. 179). And in the second place, all patients who showed a persistent speech defect are said to have given evidence of more widespread cerebral dysfunction (p. 181). In assessing this view, however, it should be borne in mind that Broca's area (as traditionally defined) was completely removed in only one patient and in no case was the parieto-temporal 'speech area' removed in its entirety.

(3) *Subcortical Mechanisms in Speech.* Recent anatomical studies of cortico-thalamic connections suggest important links between the cortical 'speech areas' and certain thalamic nuclei, in particular the pulvinar (pp. 205-219). A case is quoted in which aphasia was associated with disease of the thalamus without involvement of the cerebral cortex. These data suggest that cortico-thalamic circuits may be of great importance in speech and kindred functions—almost certainly very much more so than the 'transcortical connections' beloved of an earlier generation of neurologists.

(4) *Types of Aphasia.* In cases of cerebral injury and disease, a consider-

able variety of aphasic disorders have been recognized, even if no very satisfactory classification has been achieved. The present findings suggest that the range and variety of dysphasic disorders in neurosurgical cases are considerably more limited. None the less, the authors do suggest (in contradistinction to views which they have expressed earlier) that particular types of language deficit may be associated with the excision of specific cortical areas (p. 190). At the same time, they report that no case of a truly circumscribed deficit in a particular language field (e.g., pure alexia) was observed in this series (p. 220).

(5) *Aphasia in Polyglots.* In bilingual patients (of which this series for obvious geographical reasons included an unusual number), no case of aphasia limited to one language alone was detected (p. 221). Unfortunately, the possibility of differential impairment in the two languages was apparently not explored.

TAKEN together, the findings reported in this volume raise issues of great importance for psychological theory. For example, the finding that excision of brain cortex *per se* does not provoke aphasia raises in acute form the whole issue of the relations between structure and function in the central nervous system. In so far as the present findings allow any interpretation whatsoever, it might appear that aphasia is due to widespread dysfunction of one or other main 'speech area' rather than to the mere absence of any particular part of it. This might then suggest that, from the point of view of function, all parts of a 'speech area' are essentially equi-potential and that the degree of aphasia might well prove to be related to the extent of the lesion within the area in question. Such a conclusion would accord well with the findings of Lashley, especially when it is remembered that he evolved his theory of mass action with reference to cortical areas specialized in function no less than to the cortex as a whole.

It follows also from the present findings that the general relation between handedness and cerebral dominance, for so long taken as axiomatic, is urgently

in need of revision. With all due respect to the present authors, it none the less remains true that in cases of right hemisphere *disease* aphasia is significantly more common among left-handed than among right-handed patients. Further, the evidence that speech, in left-handed persons, may be represented in both hemispheres is considerably stronger than is indicated by the present authors. Although their conclusions are certainly reasonable, it may be that the whole problem of cerebral dominance is vastly more complex than they had imagined.

In view of the excellence of this inquiry, one may regret that greater attention was not paid to the psychological examination of speech processes or to the performance of the patients on a wider variety of intellectual tasks. (Systematic psychometric testing is reported in only one case.) True, a special study was carried out by Dr. Roberts of 72 of the patients, but the scheme of examination was undeniably crude and can hardly have permitted more than gross clinical evaluation. The richness of observation which one associates, for instance, with the studies of Arnold Pick and Henry Head is nowhere in evidence. Nor, on the other hand, do the data permit of quantitative treatment, as in the well-known survey of Weisenburg and McBride. Neurosurgeons, however, are notoriously



LAMAR ROBERTS

busy men and it would be ungrateful to protest too much.

The main interest of this work to psychologists lies in the promise it gives of a more direct attack on the physical basis of mind. Quite apart from speech, the method of cortical stimulation in Penfield's hands may throw light on the origin of phenomena as diverse and improbable as 'tunes running through the head' and *déjà vu*. Cortical excision,

moreover, provides the nearest analogue to the classical ablation technique which it is possible to undertake with the human subject. Even if such work lacks something of the methodological precision of animal experiment, at least it has the advantage of realism. Psychologists should be on guard lest simple-minded neurosurgeons solve their problems for them while they are busily engaged in prescribing how these problems should be solved.

the book review section, among other values, was expected to aid readers to be more discriminating, to make available some of the provocative statements made by reviewers, and to raise the quality of reviewing. It was but a short step to the idea of disseminating in one publication descriptive and critical reviews of tests along with the bibliographical entries. In the following year, the first of the "frankly critical" yearbooks was born.

Buros' Magna Opera

Oscar Krisen Buros (Ed.)

The Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook. Highland Park, N. J.: Gryphon Press, 1959. Pp. xxx + 1292. \$22.50.

Reviewed by CHARLES R. LANGMUIR

The editor and compiler of these test codices is well described by the reviewer. The volumes constitute the life-work of Professor Buros, who has worked at them compulsively for many years now, assisted by his wife, a loyal editorial associate, and a few others when the rush of a new volume is on, aided by the complacent support of Rutgers University, but with no other backing, for even the Gryphon Press is the Buroses'. Mr. Langmuir, the reviewer, is Director of Research and Special Projects in The Psychological Corporation of New York City. For a number of years he worked with the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and was adjutant in the formation of the Graduate Record Examination.

PUBLICATION of *The Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook* marks twenty-five years of remarkable editorial achievement. Actually, the *Fifth Yearbook* is the eighth item in a series of which the first three were bibliographies. Even though the early publications are not in any way comparable to the five yearbooks, they are part of the over-all development. The germ of Buros' unique creation in psychometric literature is found in the energizing

ideas of his first bibliographical product. The 1935 and 1936 issues not only updated Gertrude Hildreth's *Bibliography of Mental Tests and Rating Scales* (1933), but also added practical aids to help the person searching for a test suitable for some purpose. Catalog information about the cost of the tests and the time required for administration was included and, most significantly, references to the literature reporting experimental studies about specific tests were cited. In these early publications the editor's extensive effort to make the information available in the practical, as well as the scholarly, sense can be seen in the elaborate care he gave to classification of entries, indices, and cross references. All of these germinal efforts have been brought to elaborate development in the five yearbooks.

In the third bibliography (1937) the publication was expanded from the initial forty-four pages by an additional one hundred pages, most of which were given over to reprinting excerpts of reviews of books, monographs, and other publications related to educational and psychological measurement. In a prefatory paragraph, the editor turned on the lamp of missionary zeal that clearly motivated and energized the colossal development that followed. He stated that

In the mid-1930s, the state of psychometric publishing is indicated in the following comment included in a presentation to the annual conference of the Progressive Education Association. "Today, it is practically impossible . . . to make a thorough appraisal of the construction, validation, and use of most standard tests being published because of the limited amount of trustworthy information supplied by test publishers and authors. . . . There is a greater immediate need for critical evaluations of existing tests and their uses than for the construction of new tests. If only 10% of the money which the foundations have granted to test makers in recent years could have been given to endow a test consumers' research organization, I am sure that the testing movement would be more advanced than it is today. Such an organization would have a tremendous effect on the quality of standard tests published." Sandiford offered a less grandiose proposal in his review of the third bibliography. He suggested, "Buros' annual publication would be made much more useful if he would mark with a prominent star those which were valid, reliable, and had satisfactory norms. Then busy workers could neglect the rest, or if they wasted their money on gold bricks, the fault would be their own."

An attempt to start a test consumers' research organization was unsuccessful, but Buros was able to obtain financial support of the School of Education of Rutgers University to develop a cooperative test reviewing project and the contributing participation of more than one hundred professional workers who were willing to write "frankly critical reviews." At least half of the names on the original roster of cooperative re-

viewers would be widely recognized in educational circles today and most of them with recognition of some distinction.

The idea of publishing evaluative commentary on the psychometric devices that were appearing by the hundreds leads to a result somewhere between the presumed objective standards of a consumers' research laboratory and an authoritative all-wise opinion. The onus of decision about the assignment of 'prominent stars' could not be assigned to a single judge and it could not be tolerated by the editor. All the problems of critical reviewing are present—subjective judgment, personal bias, uncertainty about objectives, paucity of data, and many others. It should not be expected that these problems would vanish because the material under review happens to be named *objective tests*. Perhaps the most insidious difficulty is the semantic confusion that pervades psychology when applied to education, guidance, mental health, and adjustment. Buros was sensitive to the issues and he has lavished gargantuan effort on the problem of getting appropriate editorial decision not subject to valid charges of bias in a context that was dedicated to improving the state of affairs by frankly critical exposure. It is interesting to see how it worked out.

If one is to engineer the publication of evaluative and hopefully definitive judgments without specific personal decisions, it is necessary to recruit a panel of qualified experts to do the job. Buros chose to select a "representative sampling of able test technicians, subject matter specialists, and psychologists." This editorial decision is a choice of policy. It escapes the need for the editor to assign or withhold prominent stars, but it does not settle the matter of qualifications since there is plenty of variation within and among the separate categories. It does, however, establish as a fact that Sandiford's hope for an authoritative judgment will not be satisfied. The end product will be instead a "representation of various viewpoints in American education."

To assure the representative requirement, invitation to participate was sent to "conservatives and progressives, to users and non-users of the tests to be

reviewed, and to friends and opponents of objective type tests." Having gone so far to avoid responsibility for absolute judgments, Buros introduced an important correction factor. He sought two or more reviews for each test. When he took this editorial posture, he found himself impaled on both horns of the democratic dilemma. Acceptance of the idea of broad representation of views on many discrete items like tests leads logically to the necessity for broad representation of opinion on each item. On the other hand, how can one know that



OSCAR KRISEN BUROS

On a study-trip to Africa in the summer of 1960

a heterogeneous representation represents or even encompasses competence of evaluative judgment?

THE preface to the 1938 volume contained the conventional statement that "both favorable and unfavorable comments will be gratefully received." They were received and gratefully, too, as indicated by their inclusion to the extent of five full and delicious pages quoted in the 1940 *Yearbook*, the second of the series. It is hard to say whether an aggrieved author is more aggrieved than an aggrieved publisher, but the theme songs of both thrust the editor into an extension of his initial ideas and a more elaborate expression of them.

The long and interesting introduction to the second *Yearbook* shows the results of tossing an editor from this horn to that, namely, the editor's problems of deciding who should review what and how to get broad representation of points of view while simultaneously supplying the unsophisticated test user with competent, well-qualified, fair, and unbiased judgments.

Buros describes in full how he went about selecting reviewers for the second volume. The initial 133 contributors were solicited for suggestions of others and the others suggested others until a list of 600 potential reviewers was assembled. For each of these, objective information descriptive of education, professional position occupied, research interests, and bibliographies of recent writings was compiled in order to "increase the likelihood of securing reviewers who are especially competent to review a particular test." Invitations were finally sent to 400 prospective reviewers. Here the idea of competence was made explicit. On the other side, an effort was made to choose persons "representing a wide variety of positions and viewpoints . . . as a result, a very heterogeneous group of reviewers have cooperated—classroom teachers, city school research workers, clinical psychologists, curriculum specialists, guidance specialists, personnel workers, psychologists, subject-matter specialists and test technicians. Various groups and schools of thought within each of these classes of reviewers have cooperated. For example, the reviewers include Americans and Britishers, authors and non-authors of standard tests, conservatives and progressives, persons with and persons without experience in administering the tests reviewed, proponents and opponents of essay type tests, proponents and opponents of objective type tests, users and non-users of standard tests, and well-known and little-known persons." This is surely a classic example of a search for rampant representativeness.

In the next paragraph Buros pointed out that all the qualifications required of the ideal reviewer rarely exist in any one person and consequently it is necessary to have each test reviewed by several persons who are considered espe-

cially competent in their fields and who have the courage to speak frankly and honestly. In the 1940 *Yearbook* this idea was fully extended; Buros wrote "this representation of various viewpoints can only be achieved by having each test reviewed three to six times and in the case of a few tests, even more." By 1940 the philosophical bases of the editorial policy with respect to selection of reviewers and choice of their assignments had fully matured.

THE publication in January 1941 of the second *Yearbook* included tests published up to September 1940. It represented an achievement of prodigious individual labor—scholarly and executive and clerical. Efforts to obtain financial support from the foundations most interested in the development of testing had been uniformly rejected. The WPA provided some clerical assistance, but the support of sponsorship was fundamentally lacking. The story of this interval is encapsulated in the little fact that the volume is not copyrighted and that the business address of the publisher happens to be the residence of the editor. The management of the project right down to and including the wrapping and mailing of packages to fill orders was the personal activity of the editor. The fact that the book achieved publication is startling.

The publication of the 1940 *Yearbook* was startling, and the sequence of events in the next twenty years makes the whole development remarkable. The war interrupted the editor's projected plans. It is to the everlasting credit of Rutgers University that its School of Education and its University Research Council in the critical period after the war provided sponsorship, some financial assistance, and publication facilities to reactivate what had been proved to be an important and useful undertaking. The *Third Yearbook* covering the period 1940 to 1948 was published by the Rutgers University Press in 1949. The *Fourth Yearbook* published in 1953 and the current *Fifth Yearbook* which includes tests published through December 1958 were published without the benefits of official sponsorship, but with confidence that the reputation of the product would carry the project and

with the cooperation and moral support of an ever-increasing group of professional friends. At the present time, the *Third*, *Fourth* and *Fifth Yearbooks* are in print and they are indispensable sources of factual information and professional opinion about educational and psychological tests. The information about the tests is more complete and more reliable than the information in most publishers' catalogs. It is the first and usually the final source of information short of examining a specimen set.

It should now be clear that this reviewer has a high regard for the quality of the product under discussion and admiration for the persistent effort applied to its achievement. Next in order is a frankly critical comment about the future. The expansion in the size of the volumes together with the inflation in the costs of production may soon make these indispensable books available only in university reference libraries and in the personal libraries of a few hundred contributing reviewers who receive courtesy copies for their scholarly work. The 1940 volume of 700 pages sold for \$7.00. The next volume was 1,062 pages and sold for \$12.50. The *Fourth* and *Fifth Yearbooks* each increased in size by only 10%, but the most recent 1,322 page volume costs \$22.50. Clearly, if the *Yearbooks* of the future are to be easily available to the choosers and users of tests, the price must come down.

A first step could be a reduction in size of the volumes and correlated costs of editorial work as well as costs of manufacturing. This objective can be easily accomplished in substantial amount. Twenty percent of the printed pages can be eliminated by dropping the entire section devoted to reprinting book reviews that have appeared in sundry journals. The content that makes the *Yearbooks* indispensable, going all the way back to the volume published twenty years ago, is not the convenience of the encyclopedic packaging; the value resides in the fact that the factual information is not easily available anywhere else whereas the commentary of the test reviews is not available elsewhere at all. Reprinted reviews of books have no enduring value in this company of original contributions.

Another 5% and possibly more could

be saved by critical attention to the references to the professional literature that are appended to the bibliographical entries of the tests. The horrendous example is, of course, under the entry, *Rorschach*. Eighteen and one-half pages are occupied by 1,078 entries and these only supplement 1,219 entries which are listed in preceding *Yearbooks*. Buros suggests in the preface that the next *Yearbook* will eliminate all references. That decision is unfortunate. There is a better solution. Buros has erected a most substantial editorial pedestal on the theme of the frankly critical examination of the test products of authors and publishers. The treatment was, and remains, useful with respect to tests. A similar critical expression is sorely needed with respect to the literature reporting on tests. I do not mean to suggest the *yearbook* idea applied to reviews of the rehashes of theses in Education and Psychology that appear in the journals. I mean to suggest that Buros could properly, and profitably to all, exercise an editor's prerogative, indeed obligation, to delete. It would be constructively helpful if substantial references in the literature received the attention of a listing with the entry for the test. This reviewer would go even further. He would suggest that Buros exercise his editorial stature to curtail the review space allowed to inconsequential products of test authors and publishers.

The reader should not infer that the volume under review is burdened with inconsequential material. The significant contents of the *Fifth Yearbook* are the 698 original contributions prepared by 350 reviewers. Essentially every test published or revised in the period from 1952 to 1958 is included. These contents plus indices comprise more than one thousand pages. It is obviously impossible to document any generalizations about such a collection, but in a few minutes any reader can verify the following statements.

The editing for factual accuracy and completeness reaches a high standard of merit. The organization of the contents, the classification of entries, the bibliographical conventions adopted, and the indexing are excellent. The book is well manufactured. It would take a great

deal of time for a reader to comprehend the principal components of the human variability that endow the book with an interest quite independent of its utility as a reference. The clichés of the psychometric domain abound, especially "should be used with caution" and "more research is needed." The knowledgeable reader will enjoy the skilful grinding of axes. The student has much to gain from exposure to the differences of professional opinion and from the consistency with which his seniors apply fundamental ideas in their critique. Practically everyone will enjoy the frankly critical commentary which is liberally available, most frequently by implication, often direct but muted, and sometimes blunt and raucous. "Should not the do-it-yourself movement be stopped short of professional psychology," or "this test was published prematurely," or "it is recommended that the publisher remove the test from the market; users should encourage the publisher in this course of action by refusing to buy the inadequate product." The 350 contributors have done much more than polish such critical gems. They have done their work with devoted care—and they deserve a salute.

SUMMARIES AND YEARBOOKS
BY OSCAR K. BUROS

Educational, Psychological, and Personality Tests of 1933 and 1934. (Rutgers University Bulletin, Vol. 11, No. 11; Studies in Education, No. 7.) New Brunswick, N. J.: School of Education, Rutgers University, May 1935. Pp. 44. Paper. Out of print.

Educational, Psychological, and Personality Tests of 1933, 1934, and 1935. (Rutgers University Bulletin, Vol. 13, No. 1; Studies in Education, No. 9.) New Brunswick, N. J.: School of Education, Rutgers University, July 1936. Pp. 83. Paper, \$50.

Educational, Psychological, and Personality Tests of 1936: Including a Bibliography and Book Review Digest of Measurement Books and Monographs of 1933-36. (Rutgers University Bulletin, Vol. 14, No. 2A; Studies in Education, No. 11.) New Brunswick, N. J.: School of Education, Rutgers University, August 1937. Pp. 141. Paper, \$60.

The Nineteen Thirty Eight Mental Measurements Yearbook of the School of Education, Rutgers University. New

Brunswick, N. J.: Rutgers University Press, 1938. Pp. xv + 415. Out of print.
The Nineteen Forty Mental Measurements Yearbook. Highland Park, N. J.: Gryphon Press, 1941. Pp. xxv + 674. Out of print.
The Third Mental Measurements Yearbook. New Brunswick, N. J.: Rutgers

University Press, 1949. Pp. xv + 1047. \$12.50.
The Fourth Mental Measurements Yearbook. Highland Park, N. J.: Gryphon Press, 1953. Pp. xxv + 1163. \$18.00.
The Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook. Highland Park, N. J.: Gryphon Press, 1959. Pp. xxx + 1292. \$22.50.

Dependency: the Egg Hardens when the Butter Melts

Albert Bandura and Richard H. Walters

Adolescent Aggression: A Study of the Influence of Child-Training Practices and Family Interrelationships. New York: Ronald Press, 1959. Pp. xii + 475. \$7.50.

Reviewed by ELTON B. MCNEIL

Dr. McNeil is Associate Professor of Psychology in the University of Michigan and every summer runs the University's Fresh Air Camp where clinical psychologists, psychiatric social workers, and other professional people engaged in the amelioration of personalities are trained in the theory and techniques of therapy and the management of aggressive, emotionally disturbed boys. Dr. McNeil's latest publication is a monograph entitled Psychology and Aggression (Journal of Conflict Resolution, Sept. 1959, vol. 3, no. 3) which reviews and interprets what a couple of thousand books and articles have to say on this subject.

LIKE so many elements of man's psychological make-up, aggression is a creature of many faces—some beautiful, some ugly. This book is both a descriptive account of the Medusa of hostility as it is seen through the eyes of aggressive children and their parents and an attempt to trace the events which sometimes etch the face of adolescence with the stony countenance of anger. It is a work that bears the Robert R. Sears stamp of approval in a foreword which makes the enthusiastic prophecy that "the long centuries of pure unverified speculation about the influence of a child's rearing on his per-

sonality seem to have ended at last." Since the intentions and the accomplishments of the book are more modest than this encomium would suggest, the authors ought to be spared the odium of being the heralds of the psychological millennium.

The professional collaboration of Bandura and Walters was theoretically reasonable but geographically unpredictable. Walters came to Stanford for his PhD via the Department of Philosophy at Auckland University in New Zealand and a Fulbright Scholarship. Bandura left his native Canada to acquire a PhD at the State University of Iowa before reaching Stanford. Walters is now at the University of Toronto experimenting with the effects of social isolation on adolescent boys and his theoretical inclinations have shifted with the terrain. He is, literally and figuratively, closer to Skinner and more distant from Sears. Bandura remained at Stanford and is now convinced that aggressive boys have aggressive parents, that 'like model, like son' is the answer and identification is the means to the end.

THIS volume is an analysis of interviews with 52 adolescent boys and their parents. Twenty-six boys with histories of aggressive antisocial behavior were

matched on a one-to-one basis with boys judged to be neither markedly aggressive nor withdrawn. In the recent literary and scientific tradition of Sears, Maccoby, and Levin, excerpts from the interviews are inserted strategically throughout the book to document and illustrate the authors' conclusions. This technique allows the thrill of vicarious participation at the same time that it invites the reader to second-guess the experts. For such do-it-yourself interpreters, Bandura and Walters provide one chapter devoted to the detailed presentation of interview protocols of one aggressive subject and his control counterpart. The massiveness and complexity of these specimen interviews is an index to how formidable is the age-old task of packaging introspections for analysis; yet this undertaking was entrusted to six psychology undergraduates who converted the data into 61 five-point rating scales for parents and 85 scales for the adolescents. Since the research disclosures consist primarily of relationships discovered between these scales, this method of processing the interviews becomes a central pivot on which the meaningfulness of the conclusions may well depend. In this instance, the protection afforded by high interrater reliabilities may be more apparent than real.

Even hardened veterans of the interview battlefield cry in their pillows at night over the pains of selecting a proper sample, and Bandura and Walters had a suitable baptism of fire when they discovered it was necessary to base estimates of social status solely on the father's occupation, that nearly 50% of the mothers were gainfully employed, and that the aggressive boys significantly more often were members of large families. The matching of boys by age, father's occupation, and intelligence was done carefully, yet an unreported interaction exists between age and IQ. Ten of the 13 oldest aggressive boys have an IQ of 109 or less; exactly the reverse is true among the 13 oldest boys in the control group, ten of whom have an IQ of 110 or higher. This flaw in the matching may be a difference that is inessential or it may be vital to understanding the spirited resistance the aggressive boys are reported to display



RICHARD H. WALTERS

toward school and teachers. Such imperfections are vexatious but no cause for panic; they seem to be the inevitable scars of jousting with a sample.

THE avowed purpose of this study was to identify the factors in child training and the family interrelationships that contribute to the development of antisocial aggressive behavior in adolescent boys. Identifying these factors was by no means an aimless



ALBERT BANDURA

wandering-in-circles through a forest of possibilities, for Bandura and Walters had access to the maps and charts sketched during the early exploration by Sears and his associates. The embarkation point of the research was a theory that assumes antisocial aggression is a disorder originating primarily from the disruption of a child's dependency relationship to his parents. Thus, the 'affectional nurturance' a child receives ought to influence the amount of dependency behavior he will develop and the amount of frustration or punishment accorded dependency should determine its visibility in his behavior. While not all victims of non-nurturance and rejection exhibit aggressive disorders, the authors hold this to be an important precondition of its development. According to this theory, the parents of aggressive boys should be more rejecting to their sons, should permit them less dependency behavior, and be more punitive when dependency occurred. The boys, as a result of repeated parental rebuffs, should return these actions in kind and embark on a course of hostility and resistance shaped by their considerable anxiety about being dependent on anyone.

How did these hypotheses fare in the experimental task? Not as well as one would hope. To begin with, it was apparent that both aggressive and non-aggressive boys had received a great deal of maternal care during infancy and childhood. A significant difference was obtained only after the ratings of two separate measures of dependency (seeking the mother's help and seeking the mother's company) were combined. Both groups of parents said that they encouraged their boy's dependency and the fathers flatly denied that they punished evidences of it. The vicissitudes of dependency were fascinating to follow, but they proved not to be a reliable guide to the genesis of aggressiveness in adolescents. Had the interviews unequivocally confirmed the predicted relation of dependency and aggression, it would have been something of a research miracle, indeed. The delicate tissue of a child's dependency on his parents is difficult enough to detail when scrupulously observed in action; when its description rests on the fallible

recollection of the parents, only its most gross contour can remain. Too, the authors are aware that the post dictative design of the research is incapable of revealing "the extent to which the rejecting non-nurturant behavior of the parents of the aggressive boys was a cause or an effect of the boy's aggression" (p. 69). Hostility between parent and child—for whatever reason—would make dependency behavior its first victim. It is evident that dependency is not trial's end.

IDENTIFICATION, defined as "an acquired drive for which the satisfying goal response is *acting like another person*" (p. 252), is indispensable, say Bandura and Walters, in the child's progression from fear-controlled behavior to the mature restraint of guilt or conscience. Boys kept at an emotional arm's length by parents are deprived of the closeness necessary to identify with parental values, acquiring instead a will to aggress that is free of the taxation of guilt. Unfortunately, ratings of identification used to verify this hypothesis were based solely on the boys' statements that they felt, acted, or thought like one or the other of their parents. Lacking any evidence of actual congruence with parental attitudes or behavior and devoid of its usual unconscious component, this brand of identification at best resembles imitation and at worst bears a likeness to the confused concept that Nevitt Sanford once suggested we remove from our psychological lexicon because of its scientific inutility. Identification—if the construct is not to be misused—requires powerful evidence to distinguish it from behavior issuing from simple reinforcement. Identification has as many faces as aggression, and, if the child is said to identify, the theorist must state whether it is with the parent's aspirations, attitudes, or behavior and whether it is of an aggressive, anaclitic, defensive, developmental, emotional, or behavioral type. Later, when Bandura and Walters have recourse to "identification with the therapist" as the instrument for revising the life patterns of the aggressive child, the concept is even less explicit and leaves the perilous passage of therapy uncharted. Identification is

an intricate construct and one that must be courted seriously if it is to be courted at all.

The book achieves its greatest merit when it documents the attitudes of boys and their parents and presents information about the process of socialization. The recitals of the aggressive subjects in particular ring with distressing nonchalance as they trace the failure of socialization in incident after hostile incident. The savagery of their aggressiveness, the rancor of their response to restriction or discipline, and their disregard of parental demands come alive in a fashion that fascinates while it frightens. The helplessness and bewilderment of many of the parents are equally painful to observe. Somehow, the chemistry of child rearing that should have produced independence and normal assertiveness exploded into a resentment and rage which deeply scarred those closest to the reaction. So few of the child-rearing practices differed significantly for the two groups of parents that the reader is tempted to conclude that there is some truth in the adage 'the fire that melts the butter hardens the egg.'

While the enigma of aggression remains to perplex us, Bandura and Walters have demonstrated that its features are not nearly as inscrutable as we once supposed. They have forced it to reveal aspects of its nature by planning their campaign carefully, by approaching it systematically, and by persevering in a task notorious for its difficulty. As Sears states in the foreword to the book, "There can be no guarantee that a century hence the theory on which Bandura and Walters have built their study will still be in the historical mainstream of whatever is the most promising theory of that day. At the present time, however, it gives more promise than most, and its effectiveness in directing this piece of research—and ordering the findings—adds substantially to the reasonableness of a hope that it may lead to some rather extraordinary advances during the next decade." If the wilds of aggression are ever conquered, Bandura and Walters will deserve no small part of the credit. Certainly future explorers will find the trail blazed for a considerable distance.

Psychoses and Drugs for Men and Animals

P. B. Bradley, P. Deniker, and C. Radouco-Thomas (Eds.)

Neuro-Psychopharmacology. (Proceedings of the First International Congress of Neuro-Psychopharmacology, Rome, Sept. 1958.) Amsterdam: Elsevier Publishing Company, 1959 (distributed by D. Van Nostrand, Princeton, N. J.). Pp. xvi + 727. \$27.00.

Reviewed by CARL C. PFEIFFER

who is Director of the Division of Basic Health Sciences in Emory University at Atlanta. He is a psychopharmacologist working in biological psychiatry with those biochemicals that offer the possibility of changing the behavior or mood of normal patients or schizophrenics. They start with animals and then test volunteer human subjects.

THIS volume is the proceedings of the first International Congress of Neuro-psychopharmacology which was held in Rome in September 1958. The Congress held four symposia as follows: (1) and (2) methods of analysis of behavior in animals and man; (3) comparison in animals and man of drug-induced, abnormal behavioral states; and (4) comparison of drug-induced and endogenous psychoses in man. These symposia and the discussion of each are adequately recorded. A series of two plenary sessions were held to debate the impact of psychotropic drugs on the hospital and out-patient practice of psychiatry. The third plenary session was on neurochemistry which, with only two contributions, is probably the weakest portion of the printed proceedings. The rest and majority of the volume is devoted to the scientific papers which are classified under animal, normal-human, and clinical studies. These short communications are in order of frequency (1) English, (2) French, (3) Italian, and (4) German.

Some of the summary and symposia articles have been published in essence elsewhere, but most of the short communications are new, and many are stimulating in a field which has been dominated by concepts mediated largely by serotonin and phenindoles. Thus the steroid *hydroxydione* is an effective euphoriant, and eserine produces a lucid interval in catatonic schizophrenics. The subject index is adequate.

This volume will be of value as a reference book for psychologists, pharmacologists, and biologically oriented psychiatrists.

Psychologists' Mathematics, Emeritus

Don Lewis

Quantitative Methods in Psychology. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960. Pp. xii + 558. \$9.50.

Reviewed by ROBERT R. BUSH

The author, Dr. Lewis, is Professor of Psychology at the State University of Iowa, where he has been since he took his PhD there in 1933, except for time out for one war. Quantitative methods have for a long time been one of his chief interests, the others being psychoacoustics and motor learning. The reviewer, Dr. Bush, is now Professor of Psychology at the University of Pennsylvania and chairman of its newly reorganized Department of Psychology. His earlier interests were nuclear physics and applied mathematics. He taught the latter subject at the New York School of Social Work in Columbia University. With Frederick Mosteller he published Stochastic Models for Learning (Wiley, 1955; CP, Apr. 1956, 1, 99-104).

THE best place for writing a text book is the classroom. One's best critics are his students and former students. Professor Lewis apparently thinks so too, for he spent twenty years writ-

ing, extending, revising, and meeting criticisms. Thus, the book under review is not new to many of us though it is a pleasure to see the McGraw-Hill printing after trying to read the earlier litho-printed versions.

The one danger in spending twenty years writing a textbook is the possibility of drastic changes in the subject matter. This is just what has happened in the field of mathematical methods in psychology. When Professor Lewis began his book, psychology had seen little more than simple algebra in curve-fitting and an occasional differential equation. Matrix algebra was just beginning to appear as a tool in certain measurement problems. Since that time, mostly during the last ten years, much has happened. Several lengthy research monographs in mathematical psychology have appeared, four summer institutes on mathematics for social scientists have been held, and most of the larger departments of psychology have introduced some sort of modern course in mathematics for their graduate students. Professor Lewis' book does not appear to have been influenced in any serious way by those developments.

The book has three rather distinct parts. Chapters 1, 2, 3, and 4 are about curve-fitting, chapters 5 and 6 treat simple calculus, and chapters 7, 8, 9, and 10 analyze properties of the classical distribution functions in statistics. Chapter 11 is a collection of assorted topics in psychophysics and learning.

In the first four chapters, Lewis distinguishes between "linear functions" and "complex functions." By the former term he means nothing more general than straight lines in a two-dimensional space. By a "complex function" he means a nonlinear one—a curve that is not a straight line—and does not mean a function in the complex plane. This is an unfortunate term because "nonlinear function" would have served equally well and would have been less confusing.

The treatment of the calculus in Chapters 5 and 6 is a standard one; the emphasis is on rules of differentiation and integration rather than on concepts. Similarly, the four chapters on statistics are not unlike material which can be found in many introductory texts in

mathematical statistics (as distinguished from applied statistics). Although probability concepts are used throughout those four chapters, no systematic treatment of probability theory is provided. There is no mention of sample spaces, probability axioms, random variables, expectations, etc. The Law of Large Numbers and the Central Limit Theorem are not even stated.

The omission of probability theory is matched by another serious omission: fundamental set theory. In the opinion of this reviewer, every graduate student of psychology should know a little bit about sets, relations, and functions defined on sets. Furthermore, several years of experience have convinced many of us that this kind of mathematics is much easier to teach psychologists than calculus, for example.

Some psychologists will be disturbed, no doubt, by a third major omission in Professor Lewis' book: matrix algebra. Again, the fundamentals are not hard to teach.

Perhaps one should not criticize an author for what he did not attempt to do. Professor Lewis nowhere asserted that he would treat set theory, probability theory, and matrix algebra. Yet his title and his preface lead one to believe that the book covers all the major mathematical topics of importance to psychologists. It is here that the author and reviewer disagree. One need only glance at the books and journal articles in psychology published in the last ten years to see that Lewis' book is inadequate. Yet it may be a reasonable place to begin. No student will be harmed by learning the material presented here. Indeed, many of us began that way. But those of us who were involved for many years in the Social Science Research Council's program in mathematics for social scientists are convinced that it is more economical in the long run for a student to begin with modern mathematical texts such as K. O. May's *Elements of Modern Mathematics* (Addison-Wesley, 1959) or J. G. Kemeny, J. L. Snell, and G. L. Thompson's *Finite Mathematics* (Prentice-Hall, 1957).





CP GROWS UP

IN 1962—and that's not so far away either—*CP* will leave the parental home and go to live with Fillmore H. Sanford at the University of Texas. The old man hates to see her go but knows that bright young things like *CP* (who will then be six years old) ought to be finding out what life is like and not hanging around the old folks. And what better future could one wish for *CP* than life with Fillmore Sanford? He can not only be trusted to protect her and provide for her; he can be guaranteed to make her life gay and exciting and also to let her personality develop and her mind expand. This is an engagement with splendid promise, one in which those friends of *CP* who know Sanford—and isn't that nearly everybody?—will rejoice. But do not get the confetti yet. There is still a year to go before the ceremony.

THE BIG SENTENCE

THE shortest verse in the Bible is "Jesus wept" (Jno. 11, 35). Once in a while a one-word paragraph is good, especially when it comes between two long ones. Maybe it just says

"Well?"

or maybe

"Yes."

Heaven knows where psychology's longest sentence would be, but *CP* is proud of knowing a 207-word sentence, and it thinks you would like to hear about it. It's a nice question as to whether it is a good sentence or a bad sentence. *CP*'s Editor thought years ago when it was printed in 1948 that it was preposterous, but now that he reads it over a dozen years later, he finds to his surprise that the huge sentence is a kind of onomatopoeia in that it re-creates the breathless enormousness and enormity of psychology's new-found gigantism right after the Second World War.

The sentence is by an erudite author, a man whose vocabulary is both rich and available, a past president of the American Psychological Association, and distinguished by enough other attributes to identify him if they were all specified. He is complaining about the American scene in academic psychology as of 1948, and the reason that Harvard does not appear in his big sentence is that it has already had a paragraph to itself. The writer turns from Harvard to "name some of the [other] institutions of the highest learning where [psychology] has undergone . . . the same superficial extension and the same superficial decline in departmental and logical unity as at Cambridge," Mass. He says that "there is, for example, the Chicago Case, growing out of an apparently mild bio-psycho-pedagogic affection," and then he comes to his 207-word mammoth that mirrors the anarchy he is describing:

To [Harvard] may be added Columbia's ambition to build a psychology out of Galtonian anthropometry, educational theory-and-practice and moto-intellective testing; the Champaign-Urbana campus in Eastern Illinois, ringed 'round with student chapels detracted from a vigorous pioneers' religion until a Scottish president made, in person, a search of the intermountain plain for a 'christian gentleman' to direct his psychology; the State of Kentucky filling a wall-case with testing blanks, reaction-keys and stop-watches, and labelling it 'Psychological Laboratory'; Iowa striving for tune and harmony between a psychologist's working-place upon the one bank of its divisive river and a psychiatric hospital upon the other; Yale setting our subject in the midst of an institute of human relations and laboring to make psychology and its family relations both amicable and coherent; the hill-dwellers at Ithaca baffled in their attempt artificially but officially to unite the heterogeneous enterprises of many men professing a variety, or an application, of psychology, and es-

pecially to unify a wide range of disparate subjects growing like mustard in Cornell's state colleges and schools with some indigenous sorts plotted in the endowed moiety of an ambivalent university under an executive with a bent for certain social studies and alleviative practices.

CP's Editor, long before *CP* existed, used to think of that sentence as psychology's longest and one of its worst. It remains the longest known to *CP* until someone sends in a bigger, but time has dulled its edge. It depicts a period, no longer with us in such inchoate chaos. Perhaps the main difference is that present complaint is always slightly alarming; it has to be reckoned with. Past complaint slips back into the comfortable world of fact. Time reduces unpredictable colleagues to obvious events. That is why posterity can assess its past with so much more assurance than the past could ever assess itself.

Just the same 207-word sentences should be reserved for 207-sized occasions. If *CP*'s writers used only such sentences, *CP*'s readers would need oxygen masks.

PSEUDONYMS

ANONYMOUS and pseudonymous review of *CP* does not print (*CP*, June 1957, 2, 164f.)—except when the printer loses the "E.G.B." off the end of *CP SPEAKS*. There was one early exception, the review of Mach's *Analyse* by D. R. Mises (*CP*, June 1956, 1, 176f.), but *CP* did its best to indicate that that was a joke, and it gave the real name in parentheses in the index later (*CP*, Dec. 1956, 1, 378). There still exists the little group that wants all of *CP*'s reviews anonymous so that they can be more 'honest,' but *CP* thinks that you run a better chance of getting honesty with responsibility than you do of getting responsibility with anonymity.

Not so long ago *CP* lost a really interesting review by sticking to this principle. The reviewer wanted to publish under a pseudonym and *CP* had said it would take the review with the pseudonym because it knew that it controlled the biographical paragraph about the reviewer. It was going to say that it found this review in its Christmas stocking, that the reviewer's name occurs in a few places as an author in the psy-

chological journals but never in *Psychological Abstracts*, that *CP*, being sure that the name must be a pseudonym, offers as a prize a copy of the book to the first reader who will penetrate the disguise. But the reviewer said *No*, and *CP* regretfully returned the review, which will now be published in another journal when *CP* might have had it. Why did this happen?

Remember about the NBs and the SMs (*CP*, Apr. 1960, 5, 124f.)? The NBs are the Nothing-But-ers, the tough, hard, rigorous, no-nonsense psychologists, the unyielding core of Science's mesomorphy. The SMs are the Something-More people, with imaginations bigger than their incomes, who can get along without controls, who hate the constraints of positivism, espouse freedom, and think that psychology will burgeon best in the warm sunshine of the Tropic of Values. *CP* knows and loves both the NBs and the SMs, but the SMs more in the sense of oftener. There are so many more SMs than NBs.

Well, this would-be pseudonymous reviewer was professionally an NB but the review he was creating was SM. As an NB he was ashamed of the review; it was beyond his pale. Outside his professional pale too were his wife and children and a whole raft of SM attitudes that radiated from him in an armchair but not over a lecture desk. Hyde could publish this interesting little piece only as Jekyll, and *CP* wouldn't accept Jekyll without a *caveat emptor*. That makes sense, doesn't it? Professional pride is another attribute that makes for integrity. *Tout comprendre, c'est...*

BOOKS TO COME

NEXT spring Holt, Rinehart and Winston is going to publish Theodore R. Sarbin's *Studies in Behavior Pathology: a Reader in the Experimental Psychology of the Abnormal*. Sarbin wants to make it possible for classes in abnormal psychology to get away from up-dated Kraepelin and psychoanalytic case histories so as to read experimental research on human subjects, published in the last five or ten years, in clearly written papers that bear directly on significant problems in the pathology of behavior. In other words, he wishes to fix things so that he can send everybody

in a large class to the current journals without their having to line up for the journals or wearing out the selected article in the volume.

EARLY in 1961 McGraw-Hill is going to publish a book called *Personality Adjustment* by Henry Clay Smith of

Michigan State University. The book has been in the writing since 1956 when its author first conceived the need of getting the books and facts on personality integrated with the books and facts on adjustment with a resulting new text for the general course.

—E. G. B.

A General Systems Theory?

Alexander H. Leighton

My Name Is Legion: Foundations for a Theory of Man in Relation to Culture. (Stirling County Study of Psychiatric Disorder and Sociocultural Environment, Vol. I.) New York: Basic Books, 1959. Pp. xii + 452. \$7.50.

Reviewed by JAMES G. MILLER

Dr. Miller is still Professor of Psychiatry and Psychology at the University of Michigan and Director of Michigan's Mental Health Research Institute, which he and his colleagues began at the University of Chicago and brought to maturity at Michigan. For more about him, see his review of MacIntyre's *The Unconscious* (Humanities Press, 1958) in *CP*, May 1959, 4, 147f.

“**M**y name is legion, for we are many,” said the cast-out devils to Christ as they left the possessed Gadarene. These words form the title for the first of a projected series of three reports upon a study of psychiatric disorder in a small community in Nova Scotia. Known as the Stirling County Study, this project combines the talents of anthropologists, sociologists, psychologists, and psychiatrists under the aegis of Cornell University and the Department of Public Health of the Province of Nova Scotia.

This long, and complex volume presents the theoretical framework within which the research was developed, the philosophy and concepts in accordance with which the data are to be analyzed in Volumes II and III. The theory is highlighted by a set of propositions including four that are considered fundamental. In addition there is a series of specific ones which concern the evolution of psychiatric disorder, the “essential striving sentiments” and their rela-

tions to sociocultural environment, the nature of society and culture, and the relation of these sociocultural patterns to psychiatric disorder.

Pattern and integration are key ideas in this theoretical structure, applying both to individuals and to sociocultural units. The person is looked upon as a “self-integrating unit.” Personality is defined as the “acting of the human being as a whole.” The community is conceived of as a self-integrating unit on another level, also characterized by exchange of energy and maintenance of a “dynamic equilibrium” in its environment.

Within the personality there are patterned subsystems, sequentially linked and simultaneously active, which may be selected and described differently according to the interests and purposes of the observer. This sounds very much like a general systems theory.

LEIGHTON's fundamental propositions are: A-1. All human beings exist in a state of psychological striving. A-2. Striving plays a part in the maintenance of an essential psychical condition. A-3. Interference with striving leads to a disturbance of the essential psychical condition. A-4. Disturbance of the essential psychical condition gives rise to disagreeable feelings.”

The author focuses upon cognition, affect, and basic urge as mutually exclusive components which integrate the

personality. These, however, are not to be regarded as actual subsystems, but as purely analytic aspects of the successive patterned events which make up a personality system. This system maintains itself in equilibrium as it moves along the "life-arc," adapting to changes within and without, controlling the energies of the total organism in an attempt to preserve its essential psychical condition. There are ten "essential striving sentiments," which remind one of Henry Murray's theory:

- (1) Physical security
- (2) Sexual satisfaction
- (3) Expression of hostility
- (4) Expression of love
- (5) Securing of love
- (6) Securing of recognition
- (7) Expression of spontaneity (called variously positive force, creativity, volition)
- (8) Orientation in terms of one's place in society and the places of others
- (9) Securing and maintaining of membership in a definite human group
- (10) A sense of belonging to a moral order and being right in what one does, being in and of a system of values

Interference with these strivings may occur under three primary conditions: blocking by the sociocultural environment, a defect in the object upon which the striving is focused, and a defect inborn or acquired in the already existing personality.

Other propositions following the four fundamental ones relate these elements to each other. For example: "B-1. Given a disturbance of the essential psychical condition, a personality may adopt patterns of sentiment and action which lead to some relief from the resultant disagreeable feelings (A-4), but which fail to restore adequately the essential psychical condition." And "H-1. Given that human society is composed of functioning self-integrating units based on patterns of interpersonal relationships; which include communications, symbols, and sentiments . . . it follows that the different functional parts of a particular unit such as associations, socio-economic classes, and roles may have differential effects on personalities exposed to them and hence on mental health. . . ."



—Blackstone Studios

ALEXANDER H. LEIGHTON

The author gives a certain degree of support to the society-organism analogy, saying: "As organisms such as human beings are self-integrating units composed of cells which are also self-integrating, so also to some degree the community is an organism composed of human beings." And he adds: "It is a matter of looking at living processes in a certain way and within a framework that keeps in mind that they are living. Its usefulness lies not in enabling one to draw conclusions from organisms that apply to societies, but rather in enabling one to draw ideas and perspectives from organisms that aid in exploring the nature of community systems."

THIS reviewer agrees that such concepts in the long run will prove fruitful as stimulators of research that will lead to understanding of living systems at all levels. In fact, it may well be possible to take a stronger position than Leighton's, finding measurable formal identities across various levels of living systems, together with systematic differences characteristic of each level.

Though the basic philosophy of this book warms the reviewer's heart, it is difficult to see how many of the concepts can be operationalized. The future two volumes which present the data may give the answer.

Why do the notions seem hard to objectify? In the first place, while funda-

mental propositions concerning the "essential psychical condition" have obvious usefulness in attempting to establish a baseline, the concept is not clear. Whenever a writer uses the word *psychical* its opposition to *physical* hovers near—so near, in fact, that a misprint in a subtitle reversing these words crept unnoticed into the book. Is a dualism of body and mind implied or intended? Does the "essential psychical condition" include physical health, or is it disembodied? It is the reviewer's opinion that primary confusion in the conceptual scheme is mirrored in a lack of clarity of terms like this and like "essential striving sentiments."

These sentiments, which are processes or subjective states, nevertheless sometimes are described more like structures than functions. For example, Leighton says:

A sentiment is a construct that is always part of a personality, a subsystem of a system. Although the ten sentiments are listed, they are conceived not as more or less separate elements, but rather as interdependent combinations that are integrated and integrating in the functioning of persons. Each personality is a system which incorporates within its totality some patterned assemblies of these ten as it moves through the sequences of the life-arc.

The author recognizes the fuzziness of fusing structure and function in the following sophisticated passage:

It seems to me that 'structure' as a term can be troublesome when one is trying to grasp and analyze the nature of sociocultural and psychological phenomena. . . .

The meaning attributed to "structure" by sociologists, anthropologists, psychologists, and psychiatrists is one that is limited, denotative, and reasonably clear. Trouble arises from the fact that connotative meanings are carried over from other contexts in which the word has markedly different significance. For example, the usage with reference to personality and society is dynamic, while in anatomy, in architecture, and in many every day contexts, the word refers to the static aspect of things. . . .

Another and more important connotation is that of substance. The overwhelming force of the word in everyday usage is of an entity which can be seen and felt. It is—relative to other experiences in living—something directly available to the senses. This common meaning is also found in



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many sciences, particularly biology. When one speaks of the structure of the heart he is talking about visible-palpable substance, not the rhythmical contractions. The latter are an aspect of its functioning. Yet it is precisely the analogue in behavior of these contractions, this regular functional process, that is meant when one speaks of 'structure' in a society. The brain offers another example. Its 'structure' consists in the arrangements that can be seen with and without the aid of instruments such as the microscope. . . . The recurrent electrical events called brain waves are not considered structure, but rather a manifestation of functioning. Again, however, they are the kind of phenomena which in discussions of society are called 'structure.' The closest analogue in a community of the anatomical use of 'structure' is the arrangement of streets, houses, and other buildings.

A further point is this: in common terms, and also in biology, 'structure' is for the most part a description of observed nature, whereas in discussions of personality and society it is usually an inference from observed nature. . . .

It seems to me likely that the word 'structure' has been introduced largely as a metaphor, or diagrammatic term, into studies of personality and society, the aim being to emphasize regularities.

Here is the core of the problem, a deep confusion between what is 'concrete' and what is 'abstracted.' Though primarily concerned with communications and information flows, the social sciences need not disembody their phenomena. What is wrong, if concrete systems are discussed—concrete individuals, concrete societies—in recognizing explicitly that their functions are embodied in a structured complex of energy and matter? They involve fluxes of energy or matter and fluxes of information. In all these there are patterns (as Leighton calls them, *regularities*)—but the regularities of function of a living system should not be confused with its structure.

Despite all this, the book shows gratifying scope and penetrating recognition of the complexities of observing, analyzing, and portraying the multiplex interactions of a human community. It places the issues of psychopathology where they belong, in a bio-socio-cultural context. Clearly and thoughtfully written, it will elicit respect from most of its readers.

CONTEMPORARY PSYCHOLOGY

Name Index

1960

Note: AUTHORS OF BOOKS REVIEWED are always given in capital letters. Reviewers and authors of articles and letters are given in roman cap and lower case. *Titles of books reviewed* are in italics.

ABELSON, H. I., *Persuasion*, 214
 ABELSON, R. P., *Personality and persuasibility*, 150
 ABRAMSON, H. A., *Neuropharmacology*, 307
 ABT, L. E., *Progress in clinical psychology*, 53
 ACKERMAN, N. W., *The psychodynamics of family life*, 18
 Adelson, Joseph, *STRAUSS*, 261
 Adler, D. L., *HARSH & SCHRICKE*, 286
 ADLER, K. A., *Essays in individual psychology*, 334
 Albee, George, *DELAY* et al., 11
 AMERICAN BOARD FOR PSYCHOLOGICAL SERVICES, *Directory of American psychological services*, 10
 AMES, LOUISE B., *Adolescent Rorschach responses*, 200
 Anastasi, Anne, *TERMAN & ODEN*, 46
 ANDERSON, J. K., *The ineffective soldier* (picture), 243
 Anderson, N. H., *FERGUSON*, 312
 Ansbacher, H. L., "Whose masculine protest?" (letter), 28
 Ansbacher, Rowena R., "Standal and Corsini" (letter), 317
 ARGYLE, MICHAEL, *Religious behavior*, 198
 Argyris, Chris, *DALTON*, 120
 ARIETI, SILVANO, *American handbook of psychiatry* (picture), 177
 Aronfreed, Justin, *MILNER*, 311
 ATKINSON, J. W., *Motives in fantasy, action, and society* (picture), 65
 ATTNEAVE, FRED, *Applications of information theory to psychology*, 233
 AUERBACK, ALFRED, *Schizophrenia*, 259
 AULD, FRANK, JR., *Scoring human motives*, 337
 Ausubel, D. P., "Drug addiction and cultural relativism" (letter), 204; *MASSERMAN & MORENO*, 134
 Babcock, S. D., *SCHULTZ & LUTHE*, 278
 Bach, G. R., *WASSELL*, 50
 BAILEY, D. E., *Cognitive theory and clinical inference* (forthcoming book), 45
 BAKAN, DAVID, *Sigmund Freud and the Jewish mystical tradition* (picture), 254
 BAKER, H. J., *Introduction to exceptional children*, 190
 BALINT, MICHAEL, *Thrills and regressions*, 22
 BANDURA, ALBERT, *Adolescent aggression* (picture), 390
 BARRON, FRANK, *An assessment study of Air Force officers*, Pts. I & III, 72
 Barron, Frank, *KUBIE*, 170
 BARUCH, DOROTHY W., *New ways in sex education*, 99
 BASS, A. D., *Evolution of nervous control from primitive organisms to man*, 234
 BASS, B. M., *Leadership and interpersonal behavior* (forthcoming book), 331; *Objective approaches to personality assessment*, 68
 BAUER, R. A., *The Soviet citizen* (picture), 218
 Baumgartel, Howard, *MILES*, 135
 BAYER, LEONA M., *Growth diagnosis*, 266
 BAYLEY, NANCY, *Growth diagnosis*, 266
 BEAUCHAMP, MARY, *Understanding human development*, 296
 BECK, S. J., *Reflexes to intelligence* (picture), 309
 BEECHER, H. K., *Measurement of subjective responses*, 372
 Beier, E. G., *HETZER*, 326
 BÉKÉSY, GEORG V., *Experiments in hearing*, 321
 BELLAK, LEOPOLD, *Conceptual and methodological problems in psychoanalysis*, 39; *Schizophrenia*, 100
 BELLOWS, ROGER, *Creative leadership*, 297
 BENEDICT, P. K., *Schizophrenia*, 100
 Bennett, C. C., *MYERS & ROBERTS*, 287
 BENNETT, EDWARD, *The search for emotional security*, 312
 Berdie, R. F., *THORNDIKE & HAGEN*, 299
 BERG, I. A., *Objective approaches to personality assessment*, 68
 Berg, I. A., *PATTERSON*, 166
 BERLYNE, D. E., *Conflict, arousal, and curiosity* (forthcoming book), 158
 Berrien, F. K., *SOROKIN*, 234
 BEUKENKAMP, CORNELIUS, JR., *Fortunate strangers*, 4
 BIDERMAN, A. D., *The manipulation of human behavior* (forthcoming book), 291
 Bindman, A. J., *OJEMANN*, 327
 BINDRA, DALBIR, *Motivation* (picture), 33

BINGHAM, W. VAN D., *How to interview*, 3
 Bishop, Morris, "The behaviorist's baby" (letter), 143
 BLOCK, JACK, *An assessment study of Air Force officers*, Pts. I & III, 73
 BLUM, MILTON, forthcoming book, 11
 BONNER, HUBERT, *Group dynamics*, 37
 BORGATTA, E. F., *An experiment in mental patient rehabilitation*, 71
 Borgatta, E. F., "Always rigor, and sophistication too" (letter), 271
 Boring, E. G., "CP SPEAKS," 10, 44, 78, 124, 157, 187, 220, 257, 290, 330, 360, 394
 Boring, F. H., *BENNETT*, 312
 BOWERS, MARGARETTA K., *Introductory lectures in medical hypnosis*, 125
 BOWMAN, LEROY, *The American funeral*, 364
 BRADLEY, P. B., *Neuro-psychopharmacology*, 392
 BRAY, D. W., *The ineffective soldier*, Vol. III (picture), 243
 BRAZIER, MARY A. B., *The central nervous system and behavior* (1st conf.), 42; *The central nervous system and behavior* (2nd conf.), 378
 BRENNAN, MARGARET, *Hypnosis and related states*, 282
 Briggs, G. E., *GAGNÉ & FLEISHMAN*, 181; *RINGNESS, KLAUSMEIER, & SINGER*, 181
 BRODHECK, A. J., *American voting behavior*, 86
 BRODY, M. W., *Observations on direct analysis*, 344
 Bronfenbrenner, Urie, *ATKINSON*, 65; "A sense of identity without shame" (letter), 60
 Bronk, D. W., picture, 301
 Bronson, Wanda C., "The fair review" (letter), 142
 BROOM, LEONARD, *Sociology today*, 14
 BROWER, DANIEL, *Progress in clinical psychology*, 53
 BROWER, REUBEN, *On translation*, 20
 Brown, D. G., *de SAVITSCH*, 48
 BROWN, N. O., *Life against death*, 40
 Brożek, Josef, "CP forward march!" (letter), 29; *DORSCH*, 324; "Ex Oriente periodica," 79; *FAVERGE, LEPLAT* &

GUIGUET, 250; HEHLMANN, 324; VON SURY, 324

BRYNE, DONN, *Psychology* (forthcoming book), 11

BUGELSKI, B. R., *An introduction to the principles of psychology* (forthcoming book), 11

BULLARD, D. M., *Psychoanalysis and psychotherapy*, 366

BURDICK, EUGENE, *American voting behavior*, 86

BUROS, O. K., *The fifth mental measurements yearbook* (picture), 387

BUSH, R. R., *Studies in mathematical learning theory*, 284

Bush, R. R., LEWIS, 393

Butler, J. M., "Apfelbaum" (letter), 316

CALVIN, A. D., *Psychology* (forthcoming book), 11

Campbell, D. T., KARLSSON, 136

Cantor, G. N., LOVELL, 247

Carmichael, Leonard, HERMANN, 325

CARRIGAN, PATRICIA C., *The nature of reading disability*, 235

CARTWRIGHT, DORWIN, *Studies in social power* (picture), 130

CHANCE, ERIKA, *Families in treatment* (picture), 264

CHAPANIS, ALPHONSE, *Research techniques in human engineering*, 152

CHAPLIN, J. P., *Systems and theories in psychology* (forthcoming book), 188

Chapman, D. W., MILLS, 95; THIBAUT & KELLEY, 304

CHERNOFF, HERMAN, *Elementary decision theory*, 119

CHRISTENSEN, C. R., *The motivation, productivity, and satisfaction of workers*, 184

CHURCHMAN, C. W., *Measurement*, 215

Clark, K. E., MACKINNON et al., 72; WOODWORTH & MACKINNON, 72

CLARKE, A. D. B., *Mental deficiency*, 153

CLARKE, ANN M., *Mental deficiency*, 153

Cleveland, S. E., "Body image and personality" (letter), 109

COHEN, A. R., *Personality and persuasibility*, 150

COHEN, MABEL B., *Advances in psychiatry*, 88

COLBY, K. M., *A skeptical psychoanalyst*, 47

COLEMAN, L. R., *The practice of successful advertising*, 180

COMBS, A. W., *Individual behavior*, 89

Conger, J. J., BECK & MOLISH, 309

COOK, NANCY G., *Attempted suicide*, 248

COOK, S. W., *Research methods in social relations*, 225

COOPER, L. F., *Time distortion in hypnosis*, 125

CORSINI, R. J., *Critical incidents in psychotherapy*, 164

CORSINI, R. J., MORENO & MORENO, 87

COTTRELL, L. S., JR., *Sociology today*, 14

COUSINS, ROBERT, *The cerebral-palsied child*, 190

CRICHTON, ROBERT, *The great impostor*, 255

CROTHERS, BRONSON, *The natural history of cerebral palsy*, 367

CRUTCHFIELD, R. S., *An assessment study of Air Force officers*, Pt. I, 72

Curran, C. A., FELDMAN, 41

Cutler, R. L., GOODENOUGH & TYLER, 155

Dahlstrom, W. G., BASS & BERG, 68

DALTON, MELVILLE, *Men who manage*, 120

DANIEL, R. S., *Contemporary readings in general psychology*, 168

DAVID, E. E., JR., *Waves and the ear*, 340

Davids, Anthony, WEAVER, 281

DAVIDSON, K. S., *Anxiety in elementary school children* (forthcoming book), 45

Davis, Hallowell, BÉKÉSY, 321

Davis, R. C., DYKMAN et al., 302

DELACATO, C. H., *The treatment and prevention of reading problems*, 91

DELAY, J., *The Rorschach and the epileptic personality*, 11

DENIKER, P., *Neuro-psychopharmacology*, 392

DE SAVITSCH, EUGENE, *Homosexuality, transvestism and change of sex*, 48

DEUTSCH, DANICA, *Essays in individual psychology*, 334

Deutsch, J. A., KOCH, 147

DEUTSCH, MORTON, *Research methods in social relations*, 225

DITTES, J. E., ARGYLE, 198; JOHNSON, 198

Dittmann, A. T., BULLARD, 366

DI VESTA, F. J., *Educational psychology*, 185

Doll, E. A., CLARKE & CLARKE, 153; SARASOON, 153

DOLLARD, JOHN, *Scoring human motives*, 337

DORSCH, FRIEDRICH, *Psychologisches Wörterbuch*, 324

DYKMAN, R. A., *Psychophysiological reactions to novel stimuli*, 302

EDDY, E. D., JR., *The college influence on student character*, 6

EISENHOWER, D. D., picture, 301

ESSLER, RUTH S., *The psychoanalytic study of the child*, Vol. XIII, 12

Eliasberg, W. G., "Facts, not values, for CP" (letter), 108

Engel, B. T., SOCIETY FOR PSYCHOSOMATIC RESEARCH, 305

ENGLISH, H. B., *The dynamics of child development* (forthcoming book), 330

English, H. B., GOOD, 151

ERIKSSON, M. H., *Time distortion in hypnosis*, 125

ERIKSSON, E. H., *Identity and the life cycle*, 79

ESCALONA, SIBYLLE K., *Personality patterns of psychiatrists*, 116

ESTES, W. K., *Studies in mathematical learning theory*, 284

Estes, W. K., LUCE, 113

ESTVAN, ELIZABETH W., *The child's world*, 289

ESTVAN, F. J., *The child's world*, 289

Etkin, William, "The nature of sex," 206

EVANS, R. I., "A commercial mass medium becomes less so," 236

EVANS, R. M., *Eye, film, and camera in color photography* (picture), 336

Eysenck, H. J., "Eysenck on Lykken" (letter), 106

FARNSWORTH, P. R., *Annual review of psychology*, Vol. 11, 158

FARWELL, GAIL F., *Guidance*, 232

FATTU, N. A., TRAVERS, 5

FAVERGE, J.-M., *L'adaptation de la machine à l'homme*, 250

FEAR, R. A., BINGHAM & MOORE, 3

FELDMAN, A. B., *The unconscious in history*, 41

FELDMAN, S. S., *Mannerisms of speech and gestures in everyday life*, 80

FERGUSON, G. A., *Statistical analysis in psychology and education*, 312

FIELD, P. B., *Personality and persuasibility*, 150

FINE, REUBEN, TAUBER & GREEN, 102

FISCHER, LISELLOTTE K., LIEBMAN, 82

FISHER, B. R., BURDICK & BRODBECK, 86

FISHER, SEYMOUR, *Child research in psychopharmacology*, 260

Fisher, Seymour, "Body image and personality" (letter), 109

FLEISHMAN, E. A., *Psychology and human performance*, 181

FLINT, BETTY M., *The security of infants*, 182

FOURAKER, L. E., *Bargaining and group decision making* (forthcoming book), 125

FOX, RENÉE C., *Experiment perilous*, 118

FRAIBERG, SELMA H., *The magic years*, 276

FRANKENHAEUSER, MARIANNE, *Estimation of time*, 197

FRENCH, J. L., *Educating the gifted*, 43

FREUD, ANNA, *The psychoanalytic study of the child*, Vol. XIII, 12; *The psychoanalytical treatment of children*, 258

FREUND, P. F., *Leadership dynamics and the trade-union leader*, 359

FROMM-REICHMANN, Frieda, picture, 367

GAGE, N. L., THOMPSON, GARDNER & DVESTA, 185

GAGNÉ, R. M., *Psychology and human performance*, 181

GALANTER, EUGENE, *Automatic teaching* (picture), 104; *Plans and the structure of behavior* (picture), 209

GALBRECHT, C. R., *Psychophysiological reactions to novel stimuli*, 302

GALLAGHER, J. J., *Psychology* (forthcoming book), 11

GARDNER, E. F., *Educational psychology*, 185

GEE, HELEN H., *The ecology of the medical student*, 15

GEORGE, A. L., *Propaganda analysis* (picture), 279

Georgopoulos, B. S., LANDIS, 224

GIBBY, R. G., *The child*, 296

GILL, M. M., *Hypnosis and related states*, 282

GINSBURG, S. W., *The ineffective soldier*, 243

GINZBERG, ELI, *The ineffective soldier* (picture), 243

GLADWIN, THOMAS, *Mental subnormality*, 16

GLASER, R. J., *The ecology of the medical student*, 15

Glaser, Robert, "Christmas past, present, and future," 24

GLEASON, R. W., *Counseling the Catholic*, 297

Glenn, E. S., HALL, 70

GLUECK, SHELDON, *The problem of delinquency*, 8

GOLDSCHMIDT, WALTER, *Man's way*, 179

Goldstein, F. J., MASSERMAN, 223

GOMBRICH, E. H., *Art and illusion* (picture), 241

GOOD, C. V., *Dictionary of education*, 151

GOODENOUGH, FLORENCE L., *Developmental psychology* (picture), 155

Goodstein, L. D., COMBS & SNYGG, 89

GOUGH, H. G., *An assessment study of Air Force officers*, Pts. I, II, & IV, 72

GRAHAM, ELAINE, *Personality and persuasibility*, 150

GREEN, M. R., *Prelogical experience*, 102

Grusky, Oscar, MERTON, BROOM, & COTRELL, 14

GUIGUET, B., *L'adaptation de la machine à l'homme*, 250

GUILFORD, J. P., *Personality* (picture), 126

Gurel, Lee, MEYER & BORGATTA, 71

Gustad, J. W., PRESSEY, ROBINSON & HORROCKS, 251

HAGEN, ELIZABETH, *10,000 careers*, 299

HAGMAYER, GEORGE, *Counseling the Catholic*, 297

HALL, E. T., *The silent language*, 70

HALMOS, PAUL, *Readings in general psychology*, 51

Halpern, Florence, PITTMAN, 294

HALSMAN, PHILIPPE, *Jump book*, 188

HANLEY, CHARLES, *Psychology* (forthcoming book), 11

HARLOW, H. F., *Biological and biochemical bases of behavior*, 38

Harms, Ernest, "How to understand Jung" (letter), 61

Harper, R. A., "Standal and Corsini" (letter), 318

HARRIS, R. E., *An assessment study of Air Force officers*, Pt. I, 72

HARROWER, MOLLY, *Personality change and development* (picture), 76

HARSH, C. M., *Personality*, 286

HARTMAN, A. A., MCCORD & MCCORD, 122

HARTMANN, HEINZ, *The psychoanalytic study of the child*, Vol. XIII, 12

Hathaway, S. R., STANDAL & CORSINI, 164

Hebb, D. O., MILLER, GALANTER, & PRIBRAM, 209

HEHLMANN, WILHELM, *Wörterbuch der Psychologie*, 324

HEIDER, FRITZ, *The psychology of interpersonal relations* (picture), 1

Heinicke, C. M., JESSNER & PAVENSTEDT, 253

Heller, Alfred, ABRAMSON, 307

HENRY, N. B., *Personnel services in education*, 69

HERMA, J. L., *The ineffective soldier* (picture), 243

HERMANN, KNUD, *Reading disability*, 325

Herrnstein, R. J., BINDRA, 33

HETZER, HILDEGARD, *Pädagogische Psychologie*, 326

HILGARD, E. R., *Stanford hypnotic susceptibility scale*, 258

Hilgard, E. R., KOCH, 145; "Mesmerism revisited," 172

Hiltner, Seward, STRUNK, 298

Hobbs, Nicholas, INKELES & BAUER, 218

HOFFMANN, R. W., *Small-group discussion in orientation and teaching*, 249

HOBGEN, LANCELOT, *Statistical theory* (picture), 273, 290

HOLT, R. R., *Personality patterns of psychiatrists* (picture), 116

HOMANS, G. C., *The motivation, productivity, and satisfaction of workers*, 184

HOOK, SIDNEY, *Psychoanalysis, scientific method, and philosophy* (picture), 262

Hooker, Evelyn, ROBERTIELLO, 123

HOPKINS, T. W., *The cerebral-palsied child*, 190

HORROCKS, J. E., *Psychology in education*, 251

HOVLAND, C. I., *Consistency among attitude components* (forthcoming book), 291; *Personality and persuasibility*, 150

Hoyt, K. B., MORTENSEN & SCHMULLER, 227

HUGHES, E. C., *Race*, 7

Hunt, E. E., Jr., BAYER & BAYLEY, 226

Hunt, W. A., HALSMAN, 188

HUTT, M. L., *The child*, 296; forthcoming book, 11

Hutt, M. L., LEVITT, 158

HYMAN, H. H., *Political socialization*, 183

ILIFFE, ALAN, *Readings in general psychology*, 51

INKELES, ALEX, *The Soviet citizen* (picture), 218

ISAACSON, R. L., forthcoming book, 11; MANDLER & KESSEN, 121

Iscoe, Ira, MASLAND, SARASON, & GLADWIN, 16

JACKSON, R. W. B., *Modern statistical methods*, 203

JACO, E. G., *Patients, physicians and illness*, 96, 221

JAHODA, MARIE, *Research methods in social relations*, 225

JANIS, I. L., *Personality and persuasibility*, 150

Jarvik, M. E., BEECHER, 372

JENSEN, A. R., LEEPER & MADISON, 353

JESSNER, LUCIE, *Dynamic psychopathology in childhood*, 253

Johnson, Elizabeth Z., "In defense of Standal and Corsini" (letter), 350

JOHNSON, P. E., *Psychology of religion*, 198

JOHNSON, P. O., *Modern statistical methods*, 203

Jones, E. E., CARTWRIGHT, 130

JONES, ERNEST, *Free associations* (picture), 161

JONES, EVE, *Natural child rearing*, 276

JORDAN, W. A., *The ineffective soldier*, Vol. III, 243

KAPLAN, S. D., "Rubinstein" (letter), 238

KARLSSON, GEORG, *Social mechanisms*, 136

KARPMAN, BENJAMIN, *Symposia on child and juvenile delinquency*, 8

Katona, George, "Psycho-economics" (letter), 108

Katz, Joseph, BROWN, 40

KELLEY, H. H., *The social psychology of groups* (picture), 304

Kelley, H. H., HEIDER, 1

Kelman, H. C., TAGIURI & PETRULLO, 192

KEMENY, J. G., *Finite Markov chains*, 157

KESSEN, WILLIAM, *The language of psychology*, 121

Killian, J. R., picture, 301

KING, B. T., *Personality and persuasibility*, 150

King, F. A., HARLOW & WOOLSEY, 38

Klapper, J. T., WRIGHT, 341

Klaus, D. J., "Workbooks for introductory psychology," 54

KLAUSMEIER, H. J., *Psychology in theory and practice*, 181

Klopf, W. G., SZONDI, MOSER, & WEBB, 160

Knopf, I. J., AMES, MÉTRAUX, & WALKER, 200; LEDWITH, 200

Koch, SIGMUND, *Psychology*, Vol. 2, 145

Kolaja, Jiri, KORNHAUSER, 368

KORNHAUSER, WILLIAM, *The politics of mass society*, 368

KRAUSS, IRVING, *An assessment study of Air Force officers*, Pt. II, 72

KRAWIEC, T. S., *Systems and theories in psychology* (forthcoming book), 188

KREEGER, I. S., *Attempted suicide*, 248

KRIS, MARIANNE, *The psychoanalytic study of the child*, Vol. XIII, 12

KUBIE, L. S., *Neurotic distortion of the creative process* (picture), 170

Kubie, L. S., "Kubie and the creative process" (letter), 382

Kutash, S. B., WALDER, 338

LANDIS, P. H., *Social problems*, 224

Landsberger, H. A., "Socialization of industry," 107

Landsman, Theodore, LINSCHOTEN et al., 10

LANE, HOWARD, *Understanding human development*, 296

LANE, R. E., *Political life*, 73

Langmuir, C. R., BUROS, 387

Lanzetta, J. T., BONNER, 37; SELLTIZ et al., 225

LAPIERE, RICHARD, *The Freudian ethic*, 258

Laurent, Harry, WARNER & MARTIN, 358

Lazarus, R. S., MARTIN, 138; O'BRIEN, 138

Leary, Timothy, DOLLARD & AULD, 337

Lebo, Dell, "Researchmanship" (letter), 109

LEDWITH, NETTIE H., *Rorschach responses of elementary school children*, 200

LEEPER, R. W., *Toward understanding human personalities* (picture), 353

LEIGHTON, A. H., *My name is legion* (picture), 395

LEMPÉRIÈRE, T., *The Rorschach and the epileptic personality*, 11

LEPLAT, J., *L'adaptation de la machine à l'homme*, 250

LESSER, G. S., *Personality and persuasibility*, 150

LESSER, S. O., *Fiction and the unconscious* (picture), 92

Levinger, George, THOMPSON & HUGHES, 7

LEVITT, MORTON, *Readings in psychoanalytic psychology*, 158

LEWIS, DON, *Quantitative methods in psychology*, 393

LIEBMAN, SAMUEL, *Emotional problems of childhood*, 82

LIGHTHALL, F. F., *Anxiety in elementary school children* (forthcoming book), 45

LINDGREN, H. C., *Psychology* (forthcoming book), 11

LINTON, HARRIET, *Personality and persuasibility*, 150

LIPPERT, HERBERT, *Einführung in die Pharmakopsychologie*, 357

LOEHR, FRANKLIN, *The power of prayer on plants*, 356

Loevinger, Jane, BALINT, 22

London, I. D., RUBINSSTEIN, 98; "Rubinshstein" (letter), 318

LOVELL, K., *Educational psychology and children*, 247

LOWENTHAL, LEO, *Literature and the image of man* (picture), 92

LUBORSKY, LESTER, *Personality patterns of psychiatrists* (picture), 116

LUCAS, CAROL, *Recreation in total rehabilitation*, 285

LUCE, R. D., *Individual choice behavior* (picture), 113

Luce, R. D., CHERNOFF & MOSES, 119

LUCHINS, A. S., *A functional approach to training in clinical psychology*, 373

Luchins, A. S., FOX, 118

Luderman, John, DANIEL, 168

Lumsdaine, A. A., "INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA," 24, 54, 104, 172, 206, 236, 268, 313, 345, 380

LUTHE, WOLFGANG, *Autogenic training*, 278

Lykken, D. T., "Lykken on Eysenck" (letter), 238

MACDONALD, LOIS, *Leadership dynamics and the trade-union leader*, 359

MACH, ERNST, *Analysis of sensations and the relation of the physical to the psychological* (reprint), 187

MACKINNON, D. W., *An assessment study of Air Force officers*, Pts. I, III & V, 72; *The use of trait ratings in an assessment of 100 Air Force captains*, 72

MADISON, PETER, *Toward understanding human personalities* (picture), 353

MADSEN, K. B., *Theories of motivation*, 228

MALMO, R. B., BRAZIER, 42

MANDLER, GEORGE, *The language of psychology*, 121

Mann, F. C., ZALEZNIK et al., 184

MANNINO, PHILIP, *ABC's of audio-visual equipment and the school projectionists' manual*, 268

Manoil, Adolph, "Psychodynamics adapted to film," 313

MARCUSE, F. L., *Hypnosis*, 282

MARTIN, J. B., *The pane of glass*, 138

MARTIN, N. H., *Industrial man*, 358

MARTIN, W. E., *Child behavior and development*, 195

MASLAND, R. L., *Mental subnormality*, 16

Mashing, Joseph, REDL & WATTENBERG, 132

MASSEMAN, J. H., *Progress in psychotherapy*, Vol. IV, 134; *Science and psychoanalysis*, Vol. II, 223

Matarazzo, J. D., LUCHINS, 373; McGHIE, 90

MCANDLESS, B. R., *Child and adolescent behavior development* (forthcoming book), 291

McCleary, R. A., BASS, 234

McCONNELL, J. V., *Psychology* (forthcoming book), 11

McConnell, J. V., COLEMAN, 180

McCord, JOAN, *Origins of crime*, 123

McCord, WILLIAM, *Origins of crime*, 122

MCCURDY, H. G., forthcoming book, 291

McCurdy, H. G., GOMBRICH, 241; WILSON, 84

MCDONALD, F. J., *Educational psychology*, 342

McFee, June K., ESTVAN & ESTVAN, 289

McGHEE, ANDREW, *Psychology as applied to nursing*, 90

MCGILL UNIVERSITY, *Undergraduate research projects in psychology*, 157

McGill, W. J., BUSH & ESTES, 284

McGranahan, D. V., GEORGE, 279

McGUIGAN, F. J., *Psychology* (forthcoming book), 11

McGuigan, F. J., HALMOS & ILIFFE, 51

MCKINNEY, FRED, *Psychology of personal adjustment*, 379

McKinney, Fred, "Educational TV," 380

McNeil, E. B., BANDURA & WALTERS, 390

McNEMAR, QUINN, *Annual review of psychology*, Vol. 11, 158

McReynolds, Paul, HOOK, 262; "Woodworth's dynamics" (letter), 29

Mech, E. V., SKINNER, 376

Mednick, S. A., "Body image, personality, and chi square" (letter), 316

Meister, R. K., FISHER, 260

Meltzer, H., "The 'literature' for industrial psychology," 80; MCKINNEY, 379

Melzack, Ronald, OVERTON, 230

Mensh, I. N., REZNIKOFF & TOOMEY, 267

MERKEL, W. R., *Dictionary of education*, 151

MERRILL, MAUD A., *Stanford-Binet intelligence scale*, 187

MERTON, R. K., *Sociology today*, 14

MÉTRAUX, RUTH W., *Adolescent Rorschach responses*, 200

MEYER, H. J., *An experiment in mental patient rehabilitation*, 71

Meyer, H. J., "Always rigor, and sophistication too" (letter), 271

Michael, W. B., JOHNSON & JACKSON, 203

MICHAL-SMITH, H., *Management of the handicapped child*, 190

MILES, M. B., *Learning to work in groups*, 135

Milgram, N. A., BAKAN, 254

MILLER, G. A., *Plans and the structure of behavior* (picture), 209

Miller, G. A., KEMENY & SNELL, 157

Miller, J. G., LEIGHTON, 395

Mills, A. W., VAN BERGEIJK et al., 340

MILLS, C. W., *The sociological imagination* (picture), 95

MILNER, ESTHER, *The failure of success*, 311

MINER, J. B., *The ineffective soldier*, Vol. II, 243

MIRA Y LOPEZ, EMILIO, M. K. P. (picture), 362

MOLISH, H. B., *Reflexes to intelligence* (picture), 309

MOORE, B. V., *How to interview*, 3

MORENO, J. L., *Progress in psychotherapy*, Vol. IV, 134; *Psychodrama*, Vol. II, 87

MORENO, Z. T., *Psychodrama*, Vol. II, 87

Morris, W. W., *GEE & GLASER*, 15

MORROW, W. R., *Personality patterns of psychiatrists*, 116

MORTENSEN, D. G., *Guidance in today's schools*, 227

MOSER, ULRICH, *The Szondi test*, 160

MOSES, L. E., *Elementary decision theory*, 119

MOUSTAKAS, C. E., *The alive and growing teacher*, 154; *Psychotherapy with children*, 246

Murray, E. J., "Psychology's paperbacks," 331

MUSSEN, PAUL, *Handbook of research methods in child development* (forthcoming book), 80

Mussen, Paul, *SUCHMAN*, 202

MYERS, J. K., *Family and class dynamics in mental illness* (picture), 287

Myklebust, H. R., *CROTHERS & PAIN*, 367

NESBITT, M. B., *Leadership dynamics and the trade-union leader*, 359

Nettler, Gwynn, "Blame" (letter), 142

NEWCOMB, T. M., *The acquaintance process* (forthcoming book), 125

Newcomb, T. M., *AMERICAN BOARD FOR PSYCHOLOGICAL SERVICES*, 10

Newland, T. E., *FRENCH*, 43; "Omnium-gatherum," 221

NORRIS, VERA, *Mental illness in London*, 211

NUNNALLY, J. C., *Popular conceptions of mental health* (forthcoming book), 158

O'BRIEN, BARBARA, *Operators and things*, 138

ODEN, MELITA H., *The gifted group at mid-life*, 46

OJEMANN, R. H., *Recent contributions of biological and psychosocial investigations to preventive psychiatry*, 32

Ojemann, R. H., *BARUCH*, 99

OLSON, W. C., *Child development*, 195

Oppenheimer, J. R., picture, 189

Overton, R. K., *Thought and action*, 230

PACKARD, VANCE, *The status seekers*, 265

PAIN, R. S., *The natural history of cerebral palsy*, 367

PARLOFF, M. B., *Research in psychotherapy*, 74

Parsons, O. A., "Brain damage and personality" (letter), 382

Pasamanick, Benjamin, *GLUECK*, 8; *KARP-MAN*, 8

PASCAL, G. R., *Behavioral change in the clinic*, 355

Paterson, D. G., *BOWMAN*, 364

Pathman, J. H., *BRODY*, 344

PATTERSON, C. H., *Counseling and psychotherapy*, 166

Patterson, C. H., *HAGMAIER & GLEASON*, 297

PAVENSTEDT, ELEANOR, *Dynamic psychopathology in childhood*, 253

PENFIELD, WILDER, *Speech and brain-mechanisms* (picture), 385

PERSE, J., *The Rorschach and the epileptic personality*, 11

Peters, F. R., *MCDONALD*, 342

PETERS, H. J., *Guidance*, 232

Peters, H. N., *PORTEUS*, 308

Peterson, R. O., "Mental retardation: films for three audiences," 345

PETRULI, LUIGI, *Leadership and interpersonal behavior* (forthcoming book), 331; *Person perception and interpersonal behavior*, 192

Pfeiffer, C. C., *BRADLEY, DENIKER, & RADOUCO-THOMAS*, 392

PELPHYS, W. M., *The cerebral-palsied child*, 190

PICHOT, P., *The Rorschach and the epileptic personality*, 11

PICKFORD, R. W., *EVANS*, 336

PIERCE, J. R., *Waves and the ear*, 340

PITTMAN, D. J., *Alcoholism*, 294

Plaut, T. F. A., *JACO*, 96

PLUTCHIK, ROBERT, *Small-group discussion in orientation and teaching*, 249

Porter, J. H., *CRICHTON*, 255

PORTEUS, S. D., *The maze test and clinical psychology*, 308

PRESSEY, S. L., *Psychology in education*, 251

Pressey, S. L., picture, 24

PRIBRAM, K. H., *Plans and the structure of behavior* (picture), 209

Quastler, Henry, *ATTNEAVE*, 233

RADOUCO-THOMAS, C., *Neuro-psychopharmacology*, 392

Raimy, Victor, *BROWER & ABT*, 53

Ramo, Simon, picture, 26

RAPAPORT, DAVID, *Personality patterns of psychiatrists*, 116

RATHBONE, JOSEPHINE L., *Recreation in total rehabilitation*, 285

RATOOSH, PHILBURN, *Measurement*, 215

Rau, Lucy, *MOUSTAKAS*, 246

REDL, FRITZ, *Mental hygiene in teaching*, 132

REESE, W. G., *Psychophysiological reactions to novel stimuli*, 302

Renaud, Harold, *BELLAK*, 39; "More on Apfelbaum" (letter), 174

REZNICKOFF, MARVIN, *Evaluation of changes associated with psychiatric treatment*, 267

Richards, I. A., *BROWER*, 20

Richards, T. W., *SMITH & CARRIGAN*, 235

RIFE, DONALD, *Personality and persuasibility*, 150

RINGNESS, T. A., *Psychology in theory and practice*, 181

RITCHIE, B. F., *MADSEN*, 228

ROBERTIELLO, R. C., *Voyage from Lesbos*, 123

ROBERTS, B. H., *Family and class dynamics in mental illness* (picture), 287

ROBERTS, LAMAR, *Speech and brain-mechanisms* (picture), 385

ROBINSON, F. P., *Psychology in education*, 251

ROEBER, E. C., *PETERS & FARWELL*, 232

ROETHLISBERGER, F. J., *The motivation, productivity, and satisfaction of workers*, 184

ROSENBERG, MILTON, *Consistency among attitude components* (forthcoming book), 291

Rosenblith, Judy F., *FLINT*, 182

Rosenblith, W. A., *WOLFLE*, 300

Rosenthal, Robert, "Ausubel and social values" (letter), 350

Rothkopf, E. Z., *GALANTER*, 104

Rotter, J. B., *ADLER & DEUTSCH*, 334

RUBINSHTEIN, S. L., *Bytii i soznanie*, 98

RUBINSTEIN, E. A., *Research in psychotherapy*, 75

RUEBUSH, B. K., *Anxiety in elementary school children* (forthcoming book), 45

RYAN, F. J., *The ineffective soldier*, Vol. III, 243

Salomon, Ann D., "Ritchie on Madsen" (letter), 382

SAMPSON, P. B., *CHAPANIS*, 152

SAPER, BERNARD, *BELLAK*, 100

SARASON, S. B., *Anxiety in elementary school children* (forthcoming book), 45; *Mental subnormality*, 16; *Psychological problems in mental deficiency*, 153

SARBIN, T. R., *Cognitive theory and clinical inference* (forthcoming book), 45; *Studies in behavior pathology* (forthcoming book), 395

SAUL, L. J., *Technic and practice of psychoanalysis* (picture), 216

SCHACHTER, STANLEY, *The psychology of affiliation* (picture), 328

Scheidlinger, Saul, "Schizophrenia's important" (letter), 238

Schleifer, M. J., *MYERS & ROBERTS*, 287

Schlosberg, Harold, *SKINNER*, 35

Schmeidler, Gertrude, "ESP: Schmeidler to McNemar" (letter), 59

SCHMULLER, A. M., *Guidance in today's schools*, 227

SCHNECK, J. M., *Hypnosis in modern medicine*, 125

SCHRICKEL, H. G., *Personality*, 286

SCHULTZ, J. H., *Autogenic training*, 278

Schwartz, E. K., *SAUL*, 216

SCRIVEN, MICHAEL, *Psychology* (forthcoming book), 11

Scriven, Michael, "Blame" (letter), 142
 Sears, Pauline S., ACKERMAN, 18
 Seidenfeld, M. A., RATHBONE & LUCAS, 285
 SEIDMAN, S. N., *Leadership dynamics and the trade-union leader*, 359
 SELLITZ, CLAIRE, *Research methods in social relations*, 225
 Senders, Virginia L., CHURCHMAN & RATOOSH, 215
 Sharma, S. L., HYMAN, 183; LANE, 73
 SHEPHERD, MICHAEL, *A study of the major psychoses in an English county*, 211
 Shettel, H. H., MANNINO, 268
 Shoben, E. J., Jr., FRAIBERG, 276; JONES, 276
 SHUEY, AUDREY M., *The testing of Negro intelligence*, 196
 SIDMAN, MURRAY, forthcoming book, 221
 Siegel, Alberta E., MARTIN & STENDLER, 195; OLSON, 195
 SIEGEL, SIDNEY, *Bargaining and group decision making* (forthcoming book), 125
 Simmel, Marianne L., FRANKENHAEUSER, 197
 SIMON, WERNER, *Differential treatment and prognosis in schizophrenia*, 159
 SINGER, A. J., JR., *Psychology in theory and practice*, 181
 Singer, J. L., HARROWER, 76
 SKINNER, B. F., *Cumulative record*, 35; *Walden two* (reprint), 158
 Skinner, B. F., picture, 25
 SKINNER, C. E., *Educational psychology*, 376
 Small, Leonard, "Bellak's horn of plenty" (letter), 271
 SMITH, D. E. P., *The nature of reading disability*, 235
 SMITH, H. C., *Personality adjustment* (forthcoming book), 395
 Smith, H. P., DELACATO, 91
 Smith, Sydney, BEUKENKAMP, 4
 SNELL, J. L., *Finite Markov chains*, 157
 Snyder, Howard, picture, 245
 SNYGG, DONALD, *Individual behavior*, 89
 Snygg, Donald, MOUSTAKAS, 154
 SOCIETY FOR PSYCHOSOMATIC RESEARCH, *The nature of stress disorder*, 305
 SOROKIN, P. A., *Social and cultural mobility*, 234
 Sperber, Zanwil, AUERBACK, 259
 SPUHLER, J. N., *The evolution of man's capacity for culture*, 131
 STANDAL, S. W., *Critical incidents in psychotherapy*, 164
 Steiner, I. D., GOLDSCHMIDT, 179
 STENDLER, CELIA B., *Child behavior and development*, 195
 STENGEL, E., *Attempted suicide* (picture), 248
 Stephens, Mark, BAKER, 190; MICHAEL SMITH, 190; PHELPS, HOPKINS, & COUSINS, 190
 Stevens, S. S., HOBGEN, 273
 Stevenson, H. W., HUTT & GIBBY, 296; LANE & BEAUCHAMP, 296
 STRAUSS, A. L., *Mirrors and masks* (picture), 261
 Strauss, George, MACDONALD, 359
 Strodtbeck, F. L., PACKARD, 265
 STRUNK, ORLO, JR., *Readings in the psychology of religion*, 298
 STRUNK, WILLIAM, *The elements of style*, 44
 Strupp, H. H., CHANCE, 264; RUBINSTEIN & PARLOFF, 74
 SUCHMAN, J. R., *Observation and analysis in child development*, 202
 Sutton, Samuel, BRAZIER, 378
 Sward, Keith JONES, 161
 Sylvester, Emmy, EISLER et al., 12
 SZONDI, LIPOT, *The Szondi test*, 160
 TAFT, RONALD, *Cognitive theory and clinical inference* (forthcoming book), 45
 Taft, Ronald, GUILFORD, 126
 TAGIURI, RENATO, *Person perception and interpersonal behavior*, 192
 TAUBER, E. S., *Prelogical experience*, 102
 Teevan, R. C., EDDY, 6
 TEPOV, B. M., *Psychologie, Volks und Wissen*, 306
 TERMAN, L. M., *The gifted group at mid-life* (picture), 46; *Stanford-Binet intelligence scale*, 187
 Teuber, H.-L., LIPPERT, 357
 THIBAUT, J. W., *The social psychology of groups* (picture), 304
 THOMASSON, PEGGY J., *Psychophysiological reactions to novel stimuli*, 302
 THOMPSON, E. T., RACE, 7
 THOMPSON, G. G., *Educational psychology*, 185
 THOMPSON, W. R., *A systematic approach to modern psychology* (forthcoming book), 11
 Thompson, W. R., SPUHLER, 131
 THORNDIKE, R. L., *10,000 careers*, 299
 Thorndike, R. L., HOLT & LUBORSKY, 116
 TOOMEY, LAURA C., *Evaluation of changes associated with psychiatric treatment*, 267
 TRAVERS, R. M. W., *An introduction to educational research* (picture), 5
 Traxler, A. E., HENRY, 69
 Trow, W. C., "Rats or children" (letter), 30
 Tuddenham, R. D., JANIS et al., 150
 TYLER, LEONA E., *Developmental psychology* (picture), 155
 VAN BERGELJK, W. A., *Waves and the ear*, 340
 Van de Geer, J. P., WERTHEIMER, 292
 Veroff, Joseph, SCHACHTER, 328
 VON BONIN, GERHARDT, *Some papers on the cerebral cortex*, 374
 Voeks, Virginia, HOFFMANN & PLUTCHIK, 249
 VON SURY, KURT, *Wörterbuch der Psychologie und ihrer Grenzgebiete*, 324
 Vroom, V. H., BELLOWS, 297
 WAITE, R. R., *Anxiety in elementary school children* (forthcoming book), 45
 WALDER, HANS, *Drive structure and criminality*, 338
 Walker, A. E., VON BONIN, 374
 WALKER, R. N., *Adolescent Rorschach responses*, 200
 Wallen, Richard, FELDMAN, 80
 WALTERS, R. H., *Adolescent aggression* (picture), 390
 Walters, R. H., "Ausubel and social values" (letter), 350; "Value judgments on drug addiction" (letter), 61
 WARNER, W. L., *Industrial man*, 358
 WASSELL, B. B., *Group psychoanalysis*, 50
 WATTENBERG, W. W., *Mental hygiene in teaching*, 132
 WEAVER, ANTHONY, *They steal for love*, 281
 WEBB, M. W., *The Szondi test*, 160
 WEBB, W. B., *What psychologists do* (forthcoming book), 125
 Wechsler, David, MIRA Y LOPEZ, 362
 Weiss, J. M. A., STENGEL & COOK, 248
 Weiss, Walter, ABELSON, 214
 WEITZENHOFFER, A. M., *Stanford hypnotic susceptibility scale*, 258
 WERTHEIMER, MAX, *Productive thinking* (picture), 292
 Wertheimer, Michael, picture, 293; WIRT & SIMON, 159
 Wesley, Frank, TEPOV, 306
 Westcott, Regina H., LAPIERE, 258
 WHITE, E. B., *The elements of style*, 44
 White, R. W., BOWERS, 125; COHEN, 88; COOPER & ERICKSON, 125; ERIKSON, 79; FREUD, 258; SCHNECK, 125; WEITZENHOFFER & HILGARD, 258
 Wilkins, W. L., GINZBERG et al., 243
 Williams, R. K., SHUEY, 196
 Willis, R. H., LOEHR, 356
 WILMER, H. A., *Social psychiatry in action*, 222
 WILSON, R. N., *Man made plain*, 84
 WIRT, R. D., *Differential treatment and prognosis in schizophrenia*, 159
 WOLFLE, DAEL, *Symposium on basic research*, 300
 Wolman, B. B., ARIETI, 177
 WOODWORTH, D. G., *The use of trait ratings in an assessment of 100 Air Force captains*, 72
 WOOLSEY, C. N., *Biological and biochemical bases of behavior*, 38

WRIGHT, C. R., *Mass communication*, 341
Wyatt, Frederick, LESSER, 92; LOWENTHAL,
92

Yamaguchi, H. G., PASCAL, 355
York, R. H., WILMER, 222

Young, P. C., GILL & BRENNAN, 282;
MARCUS, 282

ZALESNIK, A., *The motivation, productivity, and satisfaction of workers*, 184
Zangwill, O. L., PENFIELD & ROBERTS, 385

ZIMMER, HERBERT, *The manipulation of human behavior* (forthcoming book), 291
ZOLA, I. K., *Origins of crime*, 122
Zubin, Joseph, NORRIS, 211; SHEPHERD,
211
Zucker, Herbert, COLBY, 47

Subject Index 1960

Achievement, gifted children in later life, 46f.

Acoustics

hearing experiments, 321-4; waves and ear, 340

Acquaintance, as social process (forthcoming book), 125

Addiction

drug, 61f. (letter), 204 (letter), 351 (letter), 357f.

Adjustment

creativity and mental health, 327f.; personality (forthcoming book), 395; student's personal, 379

Adolescent

aggression, 390-2; psychoanalysis, 12f.

Advertising, psychology of, 180f.

Affiliation, sources of, 328f.

Aggression, adolescent, 390-2

Alcoholism, 294

Anthropology, social, 179f.

Anxiety

affiliation and, 328f.; dynamics of (letters), 106f., 238

Aphasia, 385-7

Aptitude testing, 299f.

Arousal (forthcoming book), 158

Art

creativity and color photography, 336f.; psychology of, 241f.

Association, law of, 145f.

Attitude

change, 214f.; consistency of components (forthcoming book), 291; medical student, 15f.

Attribution theory, 1-3

Audio-visual aids

films on hypnosis, 172f.; psychological films, 206f.; teaching by television, 236f., 380f.; use of equipment, 268-70

Balance model, 1-3

Behavior

biological and biochemical bases, 38f.; business (letter), 108f.; child, 276-8; choice, 113-16; drug-induced, 392f.; dynamics of (letter), 29; group, 37f.; human (films), 313f.; infant, 143 (letter), 182f.; manipulation of human (forthcoming book), 291; model for social, 304f.; motivation and, 33f.; motor com-

ponents, 362-4; nervous system and, 38f., 42f., 378f.; operant conditioning, 35f.; perceptual approach to, 89f.; physiological text, 230-2; plans and structure of, 209-11; political, 73f., 86f., 183f., 368f.; psychoanalysis, hypnosis and, 282-4; race and, 7f.; religious, 198-200; research methods (forthcoming book), 221; sexual, of turkeys (film), 206. *See also* Learning

Behavior deviations

alcoholism, 294; attempted suicide, 248f.; British and American treatment, 211-14; diagnosis of child, 253f.; drug addiction, 61f. (letter), 204 (letter), 351 (letter), 357f.; exceptional children, 190-2; family and class dynamics, 287-9; homosexuality, 48f., 123; imposture, 255f.; masochism, 223f.; mental retardation, 16f., 153f., 190-2, 345-8 (films); neurosis and psychosis (letter), 106f.; paperbound books, 333; psychiatric handbook, 177-9; psychologic deficit, 355f.; psychopathy and delinquency, 8f.; psychosis and direct analysis, 344; psychosomatic, 305f.; readings (forthcoming book), 395; schizophrenia, 100f., 139f., 159f., 238 (letter), 259f., 271 (letter), 366f.; sin and maladjustment, 197f.; sociocultural environment and, 395-8

Bibliography, psychological (forthcoming book), 79

Books

forthcoming, *see individual authors in NAME INDEX*; paperbound, 331-4

Brain

cerebral cortex, 374f.; laterality and reading disability, 91; limbic system, 378f.; nervous system and behavior, 38f., 42f., 378f.; speech and, 385-7; word-blindness, 325f.

Careers

gifted children in later life, 46f.; prediction by aptitude testing, 299f.

Cerebral

cortex, 374f.; palsy, 190-2, 367f.

Change, therapeutic, 264f., 267f.

Child psychology, *see* Developmental psychology

Choice

constant ratio scale, 113-16; decision theory, 119f.

Class

behavior in America, 265f.; dynamics in mental illness, 287-9

Clinical psychology

concepts of psychotherapy, 53; emotional problems of children, 82f.; functional approach to training in, 373f.; ineffective soldier, 243-6; Infant Security Scale, 182f.; maze test, 308f.; myokinetic psychodiagnosis, 362-4; paperbound books, 333; projective tests and personality change, 76f.; psychodiagnostic tests, 53; psychologic deficit and behavioral change, 355f.; readings, 309f.; research in psychotherapy, 74-6; search for emotional security, 312; social psychotherapy, 134f.; Szondi test, 160f., 338f. *See also* Behavior deviations and Psychotherapy

Cochlear microphonic, 321-4

Cognition

image and plan, 209-11; person perception, 192-5

Color photography, 336f.

Communication

advertising, 180f.; artistic, 241f.; cross-cultural, 70f.; everyday speech and gesture, 80f.; information theory, 147-50, 233; language barriers in psychology, 79; language of science, 121f.; mass, 341f.; Nazi propaganda, 279-81; patient-therapist, 337f.; personality and persuasibility, 150f.; photography, 336f.; schizophrenics, 259f.; translation, 20f. *See also* Language and Speech

Comparative psychology

ethology, 147-50; evolution of culture, 131f.; nervous systems, 234

Conditioning

classical and operant, 35f.; extraverts and introverts (letters), 106f., 238. *See also* Learning

Conflict (forthcoming book), 158

Conformity, persuasibility and, 150f.

Continuum, prothetic and metathetic, 215f.

Correlation, 'empty', 356f.

Counseling

Catholic, 297f.; client-centered, 166f.; college orientation, 249f.; interviewing,

3f.; personnel services for students, 69f.; school guidance, 227f., 232f., 251f.

CP SPEAKS

Annual review of psychology, Vol. 11, 158; anonymous reviews, 360f., 394f.; Bass, 331; Berlyne, 158; Biderman, 291; Chaplin, 188; *CP grow up*, 394; *CP's nature*, 257f.; *Cumulated author index*, 79; *Directory of American psychological services*, 10; distinguished psychologists, 187; egocentric predicament, 290f.; *The elements of style*, 45f.; English, 330f.; epileptic personality, 11; exceptional children, 221; foreign phrases, 45; forthcoming elementary texts, 11; Fouraker, 125; good and bad books, 221f.; good writing, 45f., 360f.; group authorship, 157; Hovland, 291; hypnotic susceptibility scale, 258; identities of authors and reviewers, 330; idiosyncratic reviewing, 124f., 290f., 360f.; *INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA*, 10; Krawiec, 188; language barriers in psychology, 79; lengths of reviews, 360f.; long sentences, 394; Markov chains, 157f.; McCandless, 291; McCurdy, 291; Mussen, 80; Newcomb, 125; nothing-but and something more, 124f.; Nunnally, 158; *Patients, physicians and illness*, 221; peer reviewers, 330; Petrullo, 331; phenomenology and existentialism, 10f.; probability model, 290; pseudonymous reviews, 394f.; *The psycho-analytical treatment of children*, 258; *Psychological issues*, 79; publication in industrial psychology, 80; publishers' psychological advisors, 221; recent books on hypnosis, 125; reviewers and authors, 80; Rosenberg, 291; Sarbin, 395; Sarton on book reviewing, 360f.; scholarship in reviewing, 257f., 360f.; science as social institution, 124f.; selection of books for reviews, 257f.; Sidman, 221; Siegel, 125; silk purses and sows' ears, 125; *Situation*, 10f.; Smith, 395; social psychology of book reviewing, 290f.; Stanford-Binet revision, 187; *Statistical theory*, 290; technical reviews, 257f.; translation of Mach's *Analyse* (reprint), 187f.; *Undergraduate research projects in psychology*, 157; unfavorable reviews, 360f.; *Walden two* (reprint), 158; Webb, 125; women psychologists, 78f.; Zimmer, 291

Creativity

Color photography and, 336f.; neurosis and, 170f., 382 (letter)

Criminology

origins of delinquency, 122f.; Szondi technique and, 338f.

Culture

cross-cultural communication, 70f.; origins of, 131f.

Curiosity (forthcoming book), 158

Cybernetics, 209-11

Decision theory

bargaining in industry (forthcoming book), 125; elementary text, 119f.

Deficiency, mental, *see* Mental retardation

Delinquency

etiology, 8f.; juvenile court, 8f.; origins of, 122f.; readings, 8f.; rehabilitation of pre-delinquents, 281f.

Dependency, adolescent aggression and, 390-2

Determinism

freedom and (letter), 142; psychic, 98f.

Developmental psychology

adolescent aggression, 390-2; British, for teachers, 247f.; child and adolescent behavior (forthcoming book), 291; child personality, 296f.; child psychotherapy, 246f.; child's social perception, 289; dynamics of child development (forthcoming book), 330f.; education and, 251-3, 296f.; emotional problems of children, 82f.; experimental methods, 202; infant mental health, 182f.; mental retardation, 16f., 153f., 190-2, 345-8 (films); parents and children, 276-8; physical growth, 266f.; psychoanalytic study of child, 12f.; psychopathology in children, 253f.; psychosexual reactions of children, 99f.; rehabilitation of pre-delinquents, 281f.; research methods (forthcoming book), 80; Rorschach norms, 200f.; texts, 155f., 195f.

Dictionaries

education, 151f.; German psychological, 324f.

Drives

libido theory, 39f.; Szondi test and, 160f., 338f.

Drugs

addiction (letters), 61f., 204, 351; behavior-disturbing, 357f.; effects of, 357f.; psychotropic, 307f., 392f.; quantitative effects, 372f.; subjective responses to, 372f.; therapeutic use with children, 200f. *See also* Psychopharmacology

Dynamic psychology

groups, 37f.; psychodynamics of family, 18-20; Woodworth's theory (letter), 29

Ear

biophysics of, 321-4; waves and, 340

Editorials, *see* CP SPEAKS

Education

college students, 6f.; creativity and, 170f., 382 (letter); dictionary, 151f.; gifted children, 43; handicapped children, 190-2; medical schools, 15f.; mentally retarded, 190-2, 345-8 (films); military manpower and, 243-6; personnel services for students, 69f.; reading disability, 91f., 235, 325f.; sex, 99f.; teaching machines, 24-8, 35f., 104f.; televised teaching, 236f., 380f.; training of clinical psychologists, 373f.; training of psychia-

trists, 116-18; training of psychoanalysts, 216-18; working in groups, 135f.

Educational psychology

British text, 247f.; German handbook, 326f.; mental hygiene in teaching, 132f.; problems of teachers, 154f.; reading disability, 91f., 235, 325f.; research methods, 5f.; school guidance, 227f., 232f.; theory, 5f.; texts, 185f., 247f., 251-3, 342f., 376

Ego

identity, 79; schizophrenia as disturbance of (letter), 271

Elites, political, 368f.

Emotion

expression of, 80f.; problems of children, 82f.; reactions to death, 364f.; security and, 312

Engineering, human, 152f., 250f.

Epilepsy, Rorschach test and, 11

Equipment, audio-visual, 268-70

ESP, *see* Parapsychology

Esthetics

art and psychology, 241f.; color photography, 336f.

Ethics, Freudian vs. protestant, 258f.

Ethology, 147-50

Evolution, culture and, 131f.

Existentialism, phenomenology and, 10f.

Family

adolescent aggression and, 390-2; affiliation and ordinal position in, 328f.; dynamics in mental illness, 287-9; emotional disturbance, 18-20; psychoanalysis and, 223f.; psychotherapy and, 264f.

Fantasy, motivation and, 65-8

Fiction

image of man, 92-5; unconscious and, 92-5

Field theory

Lewinian, 145f.; personality and, 353-5

Films, *see* INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA and specific topics

Freedom, determinism and (letter), 142

Freudian psychology

American ethics and, 258f.; Freud and Judaism, 254f.; history of, 161f.; philosophy of, 262-4; readings, 158f.

Funerals, American attitudes toward, 364f.

Gestalt psychology, personality and, 353-5

Gifted children

achievements in later life, 46f.; education, 43

Gregariousness, sources of, 328f.

Groups

behavior, 37f.; behavior under stress, 118f.; creative leadership, 297; decision-making in industry (forthcoming book), 125; discussion techniques, 249f.; interaction of persons, 304f.; leadership and membership, 135f.; military, 243-6; political, 368f.; psychoanalysis, 50f.;

psychotherapy, 134f.; social class in America, 265f.; therapeutic community, 222f.; training methods, 135f.; union leadership, 359. *See also* Interpersonal relations, Organizations, and Social psychology

Growth, physical, 266f.

Guidance, *see* Counseling

Handicapped

- cerebral palsy, 367f.; recreation in rehabilitation, 285f.

Hearing

- biophysics of ear, 321-4; waves and ear, 340

History

- psychoanalysis and, 40f., 41f.; psychological systems and theories (forthcoming book), 188; repression in, 40f.; unconscious in, 41f.

Homosexuality

- etiology and treatment, 48f.; female, 123

Hostility, parent-child, 390-2

Human engineering, 152f., 250f.

Hypnosis

- films, 172f.; medical uses, 125; susceptibility scale, 258; time distortion in, 125; therapeutic theory, 282-4

Hysteria, dynamics of (letters), 106f., 238

Identification, child-parent, 390-2

Identity

- ego, 79; imposture and, 255f.; search for, 261f.; shame and (letter), 60

Ideology, business, 358f.

Industrial psychology

- advertising, 180f.; bargaining and decision-making (forthcoming book), 125; business expectations (letter), 108f.; business organization, 358f.; creative leadership, 297; human engineering in France, 250f.; interpersonal relations in industry (letter), 107f.; interviewing, 3f.; journals, 80; motivation of workers, 107f. (letter), 184f.; productivity of workers, 184f.; satisfaction of workers, 184f.; staff-line relationships, 120f.; union leadership, 359

Information

- theory, 147-50, 233; translation, 20f.

INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA

- bibliography on teaching machines, 207; films on human behavior, 313f.; films on hypnosis, 172f.; learning theory, 24-8; policy, 24; programming for teaching machines, 24-8; psychological films, 207; reports on teaching machines, 206f.; self-scoring devices, 24-8; sexual behavior of turkeys (film), 206; teaching foreign languages, 207; teaching machines, 24-8, 104f.; television teaching, 236f., 380f.; use of audio-visual equipment, 263-70; workbooks for introductory psychology, 54-8

Intelligence

- gifted children in later life, 46f.; mental retardation, 16f., 153f., 190-2, 345-8 (films); Negro, 196f.

Interpersonal relations

- affiliative tendency, 328f.; balance model, 1-3; group dynamics, 37f.; identity and, 261f.; in industry (letter), 107f.; leadership (forthcoming book), 331; model for, 304f.; patient-therapist, 344, 350f. (letter); perception in, 1-3; person perception, 192-5; psychiatry and, 88f.; religious behavior, 198-200; research methods, 225-7; social power, 130f.; staff and line in industry, 120f.; status-seeking, 265f.; transference in psychotherapy (letter), 174

Interviewing, 3f.

Judaism, Freud and, 254f.

Jungian psychology (letter), 61

Language

- everyday speech, 80f.; poetry in American society, 84f.; psychological, 121f.; scientific, 121f.; translation, 20f.

Law

- juvenile delinquency and, 8f.; mental health and, 327f.

Leadership

- creative, 297; group, 37f., 135f.; interpersonal behavior and (forthcoming book), 331; military, 243-6; opinion, 341f.; union, 359. *See also* Groups, Industrial psychology, and Interpersonal relations

Learning

- behavioral change in clinic, 355f.; educational, 30 (letter), 251-3, 342f., 376; error factor, 147-50; extraverts and introverts (letters), 106f., 238; Gestalt theory, 292f.; mathematical theory, 284f.; motivation and, 33f.; psychoanalysis, hypnosis, and, 282-4; rote, 147-50; set, 147-50; Skinnerian theory, 35f.; statistical theory, 147-50; stimulus-response, 145-50; teaching machines, 24-8, 104f. *See also* Behavior and Education

Letters, *see* On the OTHER HAND

Literature

- image of man, 92-5; unconscious and, 92-5

Materialism, Russian psychology and, 98f., 238f. (letter), 318 (letter)

Mathematics

- Markov chains, 157f.; probability model, 273-6, 290; quantitative methods in psychology, 393. *See also* Models, mathematical

Maze test, 308f.

Meaning, translation and, 20f.

Measurement

- autonomic responses, 302-4; choice behavior, 113-16; constant ratio scale, 113-16; educational, 251-3; mental, 387-90; pain, 372f.; personality, 126f., 286f.; physical growth, 266f.; scales, 273-6; theory, 215f.; utility, 215f. *See also* Scaling and Statistics

Medicine

- behavioral science and, 96f.; doctor as child therapist, 82f.; ecology of medical student, 15f.; hypnosis in, 125; psychosomatic disorders and stress, 305f.; stress in hospital patients, 118f.

Memory, estimation of time and, 197f.

Mental health

- child, 276-8; creative, 327f.; family, 18-20; infant, 182f.; popular conceptions (forthcoming book), 158; rehabilitation, 71, 271 (letter); sociocultural environment and, 395-8; student, 379; teaching and, 132f. *See also* Adjustment and Counseling

Mental hospitals

- British and American, 211-14; organization, 139f.; psychology for nurses in, 90f.; therapeutic community, 222f.; training of clinical psychologists, 373f.

Mental retardation

- biological, psychological, and cultural factors, 16f.; films, 345-8; management of handicapped child, 190-2; psychological problems, 153f.

Mental tests, *see* Testing

Military psychology, 243-6

Mobility, social, 234f.

Models, mathematical

- choice behavior, 113-16; cognition, 209-11; information theory, 233; learning, 284f.; measurement, 215f.; sociology, 136f.; statistical learning theory, 147-50

Morale, military, 243-6

Motivation

- adaptational psychodynamics (films), 313f.; analysis of, 65-8; fantasy and, 65-8; industrial (letter), 107f.; learning and behavior, 33f.; manipulation of human behavior (forthcoming book), 291; military, 243-6; political, 183f.; scoring, 337f.; theories, 228f., 382 (letter); worker, 184f.; unconscious (film), 172f.

Motor components of behavior, 362-4

Mysticism, Freud and Jewish, 254f.

Nervous system

- behavior and, 38f., 42f., 378f.; cerebral palsy, 367f.; ear and, 340; evolution of, 234

Neuropsychology, *see* Physiological psychology

Neurosis
creativity and, 170f.; 382 (letter); psychoanalytic treatment of, 216-18

Nursing, psychology in, 90f.

Occupations
gifted children in later life, 46f.; prediction by aptitude testing, 299f.

ON THE OTHER HAND

American handbook of psychiatry, 382; behaviorism, 143; *Body image and personality*, 109, 316f.; business behavior, 108f.; *Bytii i soznanie*, 98f., 238f.; conditioning in extraverts and introverts, 106f., 238; *CP's coverage*, 29f.; *Critical incidents in psychotherapy*, 317f., 350f.; *Determinism and freedom*, 142; *Dimensions of transference in psychotherapy*, 142f., 174, 316; *Drug addiction*, 61f., 204, 351; *Dynamics of anxiety and hysteria*, 106f., 238; *Dynamics of behavior*, 29; *ESP and personality patterns*, 59f.; *Expectations, uncertainty, and business behavior*, 108f.; *Experiment in mental patient rehabilitation*, 271; Freud vs. Sullivan, 174; *The gang*, 28f.; *Hawthorne revisited*, 107f.; interpersonal relations in industry, 107f.; Jung's psychology, 61; masculine protest, 28f.; motivation in industry, 107f.; neurosis and psychosis, 106f.; *Neurotic distortion of the creative process*, 382; *The psychology of learning*, 30; psychology in Russia, 238f., 318; researchmanship, 109f.; responsibility in criticism, 142f.; reviews for specialists, 29f.; Rorschach vs. Barrier score, 109; *Schizophrenia*, 238, 271; shame and identity, 60; social values, 351; *Theories of motivation*, 382; Woodworth's psychology, 29

Opinion, persuasion and, 214f.

Organizations
business, 358f.; formal and informal in industry, 120f.; intermediate political, 368f.; unions, 359. *See also Groups*

Orientation, college, 249f.

Pain, measurement of, 372f.

Parapsychology, statistics and (letter), 59f.

Perception
artistic, 241f.; behavior and, 89f.; child's social, 289; color photography and, 336f.; estimation of time, 197f.; hearing, 321-4, 340; interpersonal, 1-3; paperbound books, 332; person, 192-5; personality and, 353-5; satiation (letters), 106f., 238

Personality
adjustment (forthcoming book), 395; Air Force officers, 72f.; body image and (letters), 109, 316f.; businessmen, 358f.; child, 296f.; description and measurement, 126f.; development, 286f.; field theory and, 353-5; forthcoming book, 291; Freudian theory and, 262-4; general systems theory, 395-8; Gestalt psychology and, 353-5; impostors, 255f.; measurement, 286f.; measuring change in, 76f.; mental health and development of, 327f.; method of assessment, 68, 72f.; myokinetic psychodiagnostics, 362-4; paperbound books, 333; perceptual processes and, 353-5; person perception, 192-5; persuasibility and, 150f.; poet in society, 84f.; political participation and, 73f.; psychiatrists', 116-18; self-concept, 166f.; unconscious motivation (film), 172f.

Personnel psychology
interviewing, 3f.; military selection, 243-6

Persuasion
attitude change, 214f.; mass communication and, 341f.; personality and, 150f.

Phenomenology
behavior and perception, 89f.; existentialism and, 10f.

Photography
color, 336f.; eye and camera, 336f.; as projective technique, 188f.

Physiological psychology
brain-mechanisms and speech, 385-7; cerebral cortex, 374f.; cerebral dominance, 362-4, 385-7; congenital word-blindness, 325f.; ear and hearing, 321-4, 340; elementary text, 230-2; evolution of culture, 131f.; laterality and reading disability, 91; nervous control, 234; nervous system and behavior, 38f., 42f., 378f.; psychophysiological responses, 302-4; Russian contributions, 42f.

Pictures
J. K. Anderson, 245; Silvano Arieti, 178; J. W. Atkinson, 66; David Bakan, 255; Albert Bandura, 391; R. A. Bauer, 218; S. J. Beck, 309; Dalbir Bindra, 34; D. W. Bray, 245; D. W. Bronk, 301; O. K. Buros, 388; Dorwin Cartwright, 131; Erika Chance, 265; D. D. Eisenhower, 301; R. M. Evans, 336; Frieda Fromm-Reichmann, 367; Eugene Galanter, 105, 210; A. L. George, 280; Eli Ginzberg, 245; E. H. Gombrich, 242; Florence L. Goodenough, 156; J. P. Guilford, 128; Molly Harrower, 77; Fritz Heider, 2; J. L. Herma, 245; Lancelot Hogben, 275; R. R. Holt, 117; Sidney Hook, 263; Alex Inkeles, 219; Ernest Jones, 162; J. R. Killian, 301; L. S. Kubit, 170; R. W. Lerner, 354; A. H. Leighton, 396; S. O. Lesser, 92; Leo Lowenthal, 94; Lester Luborsky, 117; R. D. Luce, 115; Peter Madison, 354; G. A. Miller, 210; C. W. Mills, 96; Emilio Mira y Lopez, 363; H. B. Molish, 310; J. K. Myers, 288; J. R. Oppenheimer, 189; Wilder Penfield, 386; S. L. Pressey, 24; K. H. Pribram, 210; Simon Ramo, 26; B. H. Roberts, 288; Lamar Roberts, 386; L. J. Saul, 217; Stanley Schachter, 329; B. F. Skinner, 25; Howard Snyder, 245; E. Stengel, 249; A. L. Strauss, 261; L. M. Terman, 47; R. M. W. Travers, 5; Leona E. Tyler, 156; R. H. Walters, 391; Max Wertheimer, 292; Michael Wertheimer, 293

Plans, behavior and, 209-11

Politics
American voting behavior, 86f.; in mass society, 368f.; participation in, 73f., 183f.

Prayer, power on plants, 356f.

Probability model, 273-6, 290

Projective techniques
analysis of motivation, 65-8; jumping, 188f.; measuring personality change, 76f.; M.K.P., 362-4; Rorschach and Barrier score (letter), 109; Rorschach and epilepsy, 11; Rorschach responses of children and adolescents, 200f.; selection of psychiatrists, 113-16; Szondi test, 160f.; Szondi test and criminality, 338f.

Propaganda, Nazi, 279-81

Psychiatry
American handbook, 177-9, 382 (letter); attempted suicide, 248f.; British and American, 211-14; Catholic, 297f.; child, 253f.; child psychopharmacology, 260f.; ineffective soldier, 243-6; mental hospitals, 139f.; personality of psychiatrists, 116-18; pre-delinquent children, 281f.; preventive, 327f.; psychopathology and sociocultural environment, 395-8; psychotropic drugs, 392f.; recent developments, 88f.; social, 222f.; therapeutic community, 222f.

Psychoacoustics
functioning of ear, 321-4; waves and ear, 340

Psychoanalysis
adaptational psychodynamics (films), 313f.; adolescent, 12f.; child, 258; clinical research, 366f.; conceptual and methodological problems, 39f.; direct analysis, 344; familial dynamics, 223f.; female homosexuality, 123; fiction and unconscious, 92-5; Freud and Adler (letter), 28f.; Freud and Jewish mystical tradition, 254f.; group, 50f.; history of, 161f.; libido theory, 39f.; masculine protest (letter), 28f.; masochism, 223f.; ocnophil and philobat, 22; paperbound books, 332f.; philosophy of, 262-4; pre-logical experience, 102; readings, 158f.; repression in history, 40f.; science and, 12f.; speech and gesture, 80f.; techniques, 47f., 216-18; theory of child personality, 296f.; theory of hypnosis, 282-4; therapy, 262-4; unconscious in history, 41f.

Psychodrama, 87f.

Psychology

Adlerian, 334f.; *Annual review of*, Vol. 11, 158; art and, 241f.; concepts, 145-50; directory of services, 10; Eastern European journals, 79; ego, 79; elementary texts, 11 (forthcoming books), 181f.; elementary workbooks, 54-8; fields of (forthcoming book), 125; Freudian readings, 158f.; German dictionaries, 324f.; Jungian (letter), 61; language of, 121f.; nursing and, 90f.; paperbound books, 331-4; quantitative methods, 393; readings, 51f., 168f.; Russian, 98f.; Russian elementary text, 306f.; Russian materialism and (letter), 318; systems, 145-50, 188 (forthcoming book); women in, 78f.

Psychopathology, *see* Behavior deviations

Psychopharmacology

drugs in schizophrenia, 159f.; effects of drugs, 307f., 357f., 392f.; research with children, 260f.; subjective responses to drugs, 372f.

Psychophysiology, *see* Physiological psychology

Psychosomatic disorders, stress and, 305f.

Psychotherapy

Adlerian, 334f.; autogenic, 278f.; behavioral change in clinic, 355f.; child, 246f.; client-centered, 166f.; clinical research, 366f.; concepts, 53; critical incidents, 165f., 317f. (letter), 350f. (letter); doctor as child therapist, 82f.; evaluation of change, 267f.; family, 18-20, 264f.; mental retardation and (films), 345-8; personality change, 76f.; psychodrama, 87f.; research methods, 74-6; scoring of motives, 337f.; social, 134f.; Szondi method, 160f.; transference (letters), 142f., 174, 316. *See also* Clinical psychology, Psychiatry, and Psychoanalysis

Race, 7f.

Reading disability

congenital word-blindness, 352f.; laterality and, 91f.; physiological factors, 235

Recreation, rehabilitation and, 285f.

Regression, hypnotic, 172f. (film), 282-4

Rehabilitation

mental patients, 71, 271 (letter); mentally retarded (films), 345-8; recreation in, 285f.

Reinforcement

motivation and, 33f.; positive, 35f.; teaching machines, 24-8, 104f., 206f.

Religious psychology

counseling the Catholic, 297f.; historical readings, 298; power of prayer on plants, 356f.; psychoanalysis and, 40f., 41f.; religious behavior, 198-200

Research methods

basic research, 300f.; child development, 80 (forthcoming book), 202; clinical, 366f.; educational psychology, 5f.; hos-

pital, 118f.; human engineering, 152f.; personality assessment, 68, 72f.; psychotherapy, 74-6; quantitative, 393; researchmanship (letter), 109f.; self-correcting replication (forthcoming book), 221; social relations, 225-7; statistical, 203f.

Response

autonomic, 302-4; stimulus and, 145-50

Responsibility, determinism and (letter), 142

Retardation, *see* Mental retardation

Rorschach test, *see* Projective techniques

Russia

daily life in, 218f.; psychology in, 98f., 238f. (letter)

Scaling

constant ratio, 113-16; measurement, 273-6; psychophysical, 215f.

Schizophrenia

case history, 139f.; drug therapy, 159f.; ego disturbance (letter), 271; hostility in patient, 366f.; review of syndrome, 100f., 238 (letter); symposium, 259f.

Science

basic research, 300f.; language of, 121f.; method, 321-4; psychoanalysis and, 12f.

Security, emotional

Sensation

Mach's *Analyse* (reprint), 187f.; pain and drug effects, 372f.; paperbound books, 332

Sex

behavior of turkeys (film), 206; change of, 48f.; education for children, 99f.; female homosexuality, 123; homosexuality, 48f.; paperbound books, 333f.; transvestism, 48f.

Shame, identity and (letter), 60

Social anthropology, 179f.

Social psychology

acquaintance process (forthcoming book), 125; affiliation, 328f.; American attitudes toward funerals, 364f.; American ethics, 258f.; American values, 311f.; antisocial behavior in adolescents, 390-2; attempted suicide, 248f.; child's social perception, 289; class behavior in America, 265f.; cross-cultural communication, 70f.; family and class dynamics in mental illness, 287-9; group dynamics, 37f.; groups, 304f.; hospital patients, 118f.; identity, 261f.; imagination in, 95f.; interpersonal perception, 1-3; interpersonal relations in industry, 120f.; legal systems and mental health, 327f.; literature and image of man, 92-5; mass communication, 341f.; medical care and, 96f.; mobility, 234f.; origins of culture, 131f.; paperbound books, 333f.; participation in politics, 73f., 183f.; person perception, 192-5; persuasibility and personality, 150f.; poet in society, 84f.;

political socialization, 183f.; politics of mass society, 368f.; power relations, 130f.; religious behavior, 198-200; research methods, 225-7; role of social scientist, 95f.; self-concept, 166f.; social problems, 224f.; social psychotherapy, 134f.; social values (letter), 351; sociology and, 14f.; Soviet citizen, 218f.; voting behavior, 86f. *See also* Communication, Groups, and Interpersonal relations

Social science

medicine and, 96f.; role of, 95f.

Sociology

current status, 14f.; imagination in, 95f.; mathematical models, 136f.

Speech, brain-mechanisms and, 385-7

Statistics

decision theory, 119f.; elementary text, 203f., 312f.; 'empty' correlation, 356f.; parapsychology and (letter), 59f.; quantitative methods in psychology, 393; theory, 273-6, 290

Status, social, 265f.

Stimulus

reinforcing, 33f.; response and, 145-50; psychophysiological reactions, 302-4

Stress

hospital patients, 118f.; military personnel, 243-6; psychosomatic disorders, 305f.

Success, as American value, 311f.

Suggestion, post-hypnotic (film), 172f.

Suicide, attempted, 248f.

Teaching

machines, 24-8, 104f., 206f.; mental hygiene in, 132f.; problems of teachers, 154f.; pupil-centered approach, 376; self-instructional devices, 24-8; small-group discussion, 249f.; television, 236f., 380f.

Technology, basic research and, 300f.

Television, teaching by, 236f., 380f.

Testing

aptitude, 299f.; autonomic responses, 302-4; expressive movement, 362-4; intelligence, 187, 196f.; maze, 308f.; mental, 387-90; psychodiagnostic, 53; selection of psychiatrists, 113-16

Textbooks

elementary workbooks, 54-8; introductory, 11 (forthcoming books), 181f.; readings in psychology, 51f.; Russian elementary, 306f. *See also* specific topics

Theory

association, 145f.; attribution, 1-3; educational psychology, 5f.; error factor, 147-50; field, 145f., 353-5; hypnosis, 282-4; information, 147-50; intervening variables, 145f.; learning, 145-50; libido, 39f.; linear frequency, 147-50; mathematical sociology, 136f.; measurement, 215f.; motivation, 228f., 382 (letter); personality, 286f., 395-8; psychiatric,

177-9; psychoanalytic, 262-4; psychological, 145-50, 188 (forthcoming book); statistical, 273-6, 290; Woodworth's (letter), 29

Thinking
preconscious, 170f.; productive, 292f.

Time
distortion in hypnosis, 125; estimation of, 197f.

Transference, dimensions of (letters),* 142f., 174, 316

Translation, language and, 20f.

Transvestism, homosexuality and, 48f.

Unconscious
fiction and, 92-5; preconscious and, 170f., 382 (letter); prelogical experience, 102; significance in history, 41f.

Values
American social, 311f.; changes in American, 258f.; social (letter), 351

Variables, intervening, 145f.

Vision, color photography and, 336f.

Waves, traveling, in ear, 321-4, 340

Women psychologists, 78f.

Word-blindness, congenital, 325f.

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CONTENTS

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- Diagnostic Significance of 3-DPT Variables and Clinical Implications
- General Behavior Variables in 3-DPT Productions
- Feeling Tones in 3-DPT Productions
- Unique Treatment Variables in 3-DPT Productions
- Content Variables in 3-DPT Productions
- Testing of Limits Variables
- Directions for the Administration of the 3-DPT
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